

1 **Delivering on Biden’s 2030 conservation commitment**

2 B. Alexander Simmons^{1*}, Christoph Nolte², Jennifer McGowan^{3,4}

3
4 ¹ Global Development Policy Center, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts, United States of
5 America.

6 ² Department of Earth and Environment, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts, United
7 States of America.

8 ³ The Nature Conservancy, Arlington, Virginia, United States of America.

9 ⁴ Center for Biodiversity and Global Change, Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology,
10 Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut, United States of America.

11
12 *Corresponding author

13 Email: blakeas@bu.edu (BAS)

14
15 **Keywords:** biodiversity conservation, climate mitigation, conservation planning, natural climate
16 solutions, protected areas, 30 by 30

17
18 **Acknowledgments**

19 We are grateful to T. Cors and K. Gallagher for providing feedback on an early version of this
20 paper.

22 **Delivering on Biden’s 2030 conservation commitment**

23 **Abstract**

24 On January 27, 2021, President Biden signed an executive order, *Tackling the Climate*
25 *Crisis at Home and Abroad*, committing the United States to various goals within his campaign’s
26 major climate policy, the *Biden Plan for a Clean Energy Revolution and Environmental Justice*.
27 Included in this executive order is a commitment to “conserving at least 30 percent of [the
28 United States’] lands and oceans by 2030.” This ambitious conservation target signals a
29 promising direction for biodiversity in the United States. However, while the executive order
30 outlines several goals for climate mitigation, the ‘30x30’ target remains vague in its objectives,
31 actions, and implementation strategies for protecting biodiversity. Biodiversity urgently needs
32 effective conservation action, but it remains unclear *where* and *what* this 30% target will be
33 applied to. Achieving different climate and biodiversity objectives will require different
34 strategies and, in combination with the associated costs of implementation, will lead to different
35 priority areas for conservation actions. Here, we illustrate what the 30% target could look like
36 across four objectives reflective of the ambitious goals outlined in the executive order. We
37 compile several variations of terrestrial protected area networks guided by these different
38 objectives and examine the trade-offs in costs, ecosystem representation, and climate mitigation
39 potential between each. We find little congruence in priority areas across objectives,
40 emphasizing just how crucial it will be for the Biden administration to develop clear objectives
41 and establish appropriate performance metrics from the outset to maximize both conservation
42 and climate outcomes in support of the 30x30 target. We discuss important considerations that
43 must guide the administration’s conservation strategies in order to ensure meaningful
44 conservation outcomes can be achieved over the next decade.

45 **Introduction**

46 President Joseph R. Biden, Jr. has promised to usher the United States into a new era of
47 national environmental sustainability. In his latest executive order, *Tackling the Climate Crisis at*
48 *Home and Abroad*, signed on January 27, 2021, the administration will “advance conservation,
49 agriculture, and reforestation” by committing to the goal of “conserving at least 30 percent of our
50 lands and oceans by 2030” (EOP 2021). Furthermore, the executive order establishes the Civilian
51 Climate Corps Initiative, which will facilitate this goal by generating new job opportunities
52 focused on “conserving and restoring public lands and waters, increasing reforestation,
53 increasing carbon sequestration in the agricultural sector, protecting biodiversity, improving
54 access to recreation, and addressing the changing climate” (EOP 2021).

55 This target aligns with recent global commitments to protect 30% of the world’s
56 terrestrial and marine ecosystems as part of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development,
57 known as the ‘30x30’ goal (WWF 2020). Many components of the executive order are explicit in
58 their goals; however, the target for biodiversity conservation remains vague in its objectives,
59 actions, and implementation strategies. Biodiversity urgently needs effective conservation action,
60 but expectations of *where* and *what* this 30% target applies to remain uncertain amidst
61 simultaneous—and potentially competing—goals for climate mitigation.

62 To address this, we encourage a systematic conservation planning framework be adopted
63 early to ensure the 30x30 goal will achieve meaningful conservation outcomes. Such a
64 framework will support the Biden administration’s target by enabling an inclusive process to
65 develop explicit, quantifiable biodiversity and climate objectives that will guide the placement of
66 conservation strategies where they benefit nature most, and minimize negative impacts on
67 people, communities, and industries. Using this framework, the incoming administration is

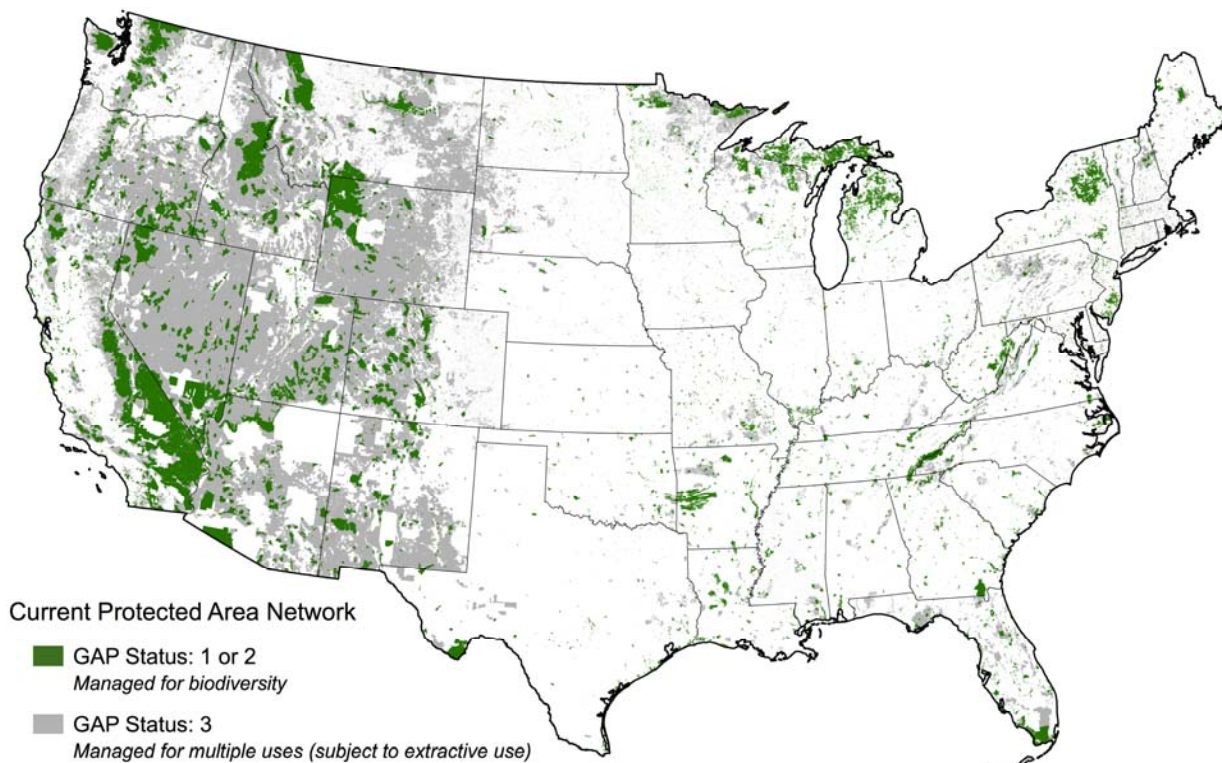
68 presented with an exceptional opportunity to develop a transparent, systematic, science-based,
69 and community-informed framework to deliver on national conservation commitments and
70 pioneer a global standard for achieving the 30x30 goal.

71

72 *Protected areas and the biodiversity crisis*

73 What is considered ‘protected’ in the US is subject to interpretation. According to
74 international reporting standards of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP),
75 terrestrial protected areas currently cover nearly 12% (1.12 M km²) of US lands (UNEP-WCMC
76 2020). However, the official national inventory—the Protected Area Database of the United
77 States (PAD-US)—is far more inclusive of what is considered ‘protected.’ The most recent
78 PAD-US data considers more than 31% of land under various forms of protection, including
79 13% (1.25 M km²) with strict mandates for biodiversity protection (PAD GAP status 1 and 2),
80 and an additional 18% (1.67 M km²) protected from conversion yet subject to multiple
81 permissible uses (PAD GAP status 3), such as logging and mining (USGS GAP 2020) (Fig. 1).
82 The Biden administration must determine what baseline it will consider for achieving this 30x30
83 target; under the most exclusive baseline with greatest biodiversity protection, the coverage of
84 terrestrial protected areas may need to expand more than twice its current size within the next
85 decade—a welcomed, albeit ambitious, target.

86



87

88 **Fig. 1.** Current distribution of terrestrial protected areas with known mandates for biodiversity
89 protection on undeveloped land in the conterminous United States. Protected areas are
90 distinguished by Gap Analysis Project (GAP) status codes. Data obtained from the Protected
91 Areas Database of the United States (USGS GAP 2020).

92

93 The current protected area network is insufficient to curtail significant biodiversity losses.
94 Recent estimates suggest one-third of terrestrial species in the US are threatened with extinction,
95 of which just 11% have adequate representation within existing protected areas (Dietz et al.
96 2020). There is a large bias toward protecting lands and ecosystems in Alaska and other remote,
97 sparsely inhabited areas where competition with agriculture is low (Bargelt et al. 2020; Venter et
98 al. 2017). The concentration of protected areas in the western conterminous US contrasts the

99 distribution of endemic species in the southeast (Jenkins et al. 2015), where protected areas are
100 few in number and small in size (Venter et al. 2017).

101 Furthermore, the future of protected areas in the US is increasingly uncertain. Protected
102 area downgrading, downsizing, and degazettement (PADDD) has impacted more than 0.5 M km²
103 of protected lands in the US, with almost an equivalent 0.4 M km² of additional land threatened
104 by PADDD proposals brought forth in the last 20 years alone (Kroner et al. 2019); most notably,
105 the reductions of Bears Ears (85%) and Grand Staircase-Escalante National Monuments (51%) in
106 2017 under the Trump administration constitute the largest downsizing events in US history
107 (Kroner et al. 2019). Even if existing protected areas could be secured into the future, it is likely
108 that climate change will jeopardize the effectiveness of these lands for biodiversity without
109 adaptive and proactive management. Due to their geographic bias, existing national parks are
110 more vulnerable to climate change than unprotected lands in the US (Gonzalez et al. 2018).
111 Areas with greater potential to serve as species- and climate-refugia in the future offer
112 exceptional conservation value, yet many of these important areas are currently unprotected
113 (Lawler et al. 2020; Stralberg et al. 2020).

114

115 *One target, multiple potential objectives*

116 Without explicit objectives, it is unclear how the 30x30 target will achieve Biden's goals
117 of biodiversity protection and climate mitigation. As observed in the global response to the
118 Convention on Biological Diversity's previous Aichi Target 11 (protection of 17% terrestrial and
119 10% marine ecosystems globally), area-based protection targets are susceptible to inadequate and
120 inequitable placement, underachievement, insufficient resourcing, and other perverse outcomes
121 as countries aim to quickly and cheaply increase the quantity of 'protected' lands and waters

122 (Barnes et al. 2018). Achieving different objectives will require different conservation strategies
123 and, in combination with the associated costs of implementation, will lead to different priority
124 areas for conservation actions. The most affordable locations may not provide the most climate
125 mitigation potential, and areas with the most climate mitigation potential may not adequately
126 secure threatened species from extinction. Without systematic planning, the potential for
127 synergies between objectives may not be fully realized, jeopardizing efficiency and missing
128 critical opportunities to provide evidence that biodiversity and climate goals can be equitably
129 achieved alongside sustainable management and economic growth on land and sea.

130 To illustrate the importance of early, definitive objective-setting for the Biden
131 administration's forthcoming conservation planning, we show how meeting different objectives
132 will drive priorities towards disparate geographies within the US, delivering variable outcomes
133 for biodiversity and climate goals. We identified cost-effective expansions of the existing
134 protected area network to fully protect 30% of undeveloped land under four objectives reflective
135 of the goals in the executive order: (1) area-based objective, (2) landscape-based objective, (3)
136 species-based objective, and (4) carbon-based objective. While we acknowledge the 30x30 goal
137 will be met through a combination of land, freshwater, and marine conservation, we focused this
138 illustrative example on meeting the 30% target within the conterminous US landscape where we
139 have the best available ecological and land value data. Understanding and quantifying requisite
140 trade-offs will be critical to this administration's conservation decision-making and will require
141 identifying relevant performance metrics in tandem with objective setting. To highlight this, we
142 compare the performance of each objective according to three network-level performance
143 metrics: total cost, ecosystem representation, and climate mitigation potential.

144

145 **Methods**

146 We divided the conterminous US into the same 100 km² planning units as Lawler et al.
147 (2020), for a total of 79,784 planning units covering all terrestrial areas. We excluded developed
148 areas from potential selection and from our estimates of the area available to reach the 30%
149 target. These developed areas include all land classified by the 2016 National Land Cover
150 Database as ‘developed, open space’, ‘developed, low intensity’, ‘developed, medium intensity’,
151 and ‘developed, high intensity’ (Yang et al. 2018). We further excluded all undeveloped land
152 classified as a protected area under GAP 1 or 2 protection status (USGS GAP 2020) from
153 potential selection. We do not exclude undeveloped land classified under GAP 3 protection
154 status for the following reasons: (1) these protected areas increase the existing protected area
155 coverage above 30% of the U.S. (Fig. 1), so they (or at least some) are unlikely to be considered
156 in the baseline by the Biden administration, (2) they do not have such strict biodiversity
157 protection mandates as GAP 1 and 2 protected areas, and (3) the permissible uses (e.g. logging
158 and mining) introduce large variation in the potential impacts on biodiversity between GAP 3
159 protected areas.

160 Approximately 574,412 km² (7.49%) of the conterminous U.S. is protected under GAP 1
161 and 2; therefore, we required at least 1,723,452 km² (22.51%) of undeveloped land to be selected
162 for each objective in order to reach the 30% target. Per common practice in systematic
163 conservation planning, all planning units with more than 50% of their total area classified as a
164 GAP 1 or 2 protected area were excluded from potential selection, including any remaining
165 unprotected and undeveloped land within the respective planning units. For our illustrative
166 purposes, we cost-effectively selected the additional 22.5% of lands for each objective based
167 upon the most conservative assumption of full protection through land acquisitions without

168 residual extractive uses, such as timber or grazing. We used the most recent high-resolution
169 estimates of the 2010 fair market value of private lands in the conterminous U.S. (Nolte 2020) to
170 calculate the costs per hectare of undeveloped land within each planning unit. While we do not
171 advocate for meeting the 30% target exclusively through strict protection, we use this approach
172 to be illustrative of the upper bounds of socio-economic costs. This approach overestimates the
173 cost of a diversified protection strategy that involves partial protection (e.g. through easements or
174 “working” lands), yet it is likely to reflect much of the spatial heterogeneity in costs for such
175 alternative strategies.

176

177 *Protected area expansions*

178 For the area-based objective, we sorted all planning units available for selection
179 according to the cost per hectare of undeveloped land within them. We progressively selected all
180 undeveloped and unprotected lands within the planning units with the lowest cost per hectare
181 until their cumulative area exceeded 1,723,452 km². For the landscape objective, we identified
182 all undeveloped and unprotected land overlapping with the Resilient and Connected Network
183 (RCN) of landscapes produced by The Nature Conservancy (TNC 2018). We included lands
184 classified under all combinations of the RCN—‘resilience and flow’, ‘resilience and recognized
185 biodiversity’, and ‘resilience, flow, and recognized biodiversity’—which cover 2,158,031 km²
186 (28.19%) of undeveloped and unprotected land considered in this analysis. Areas classified as
187 tribal lands were not available for inclusion in the RCN data. We followed a consistent approach
188 as the area-based objective for selecting new protected areas: we limited the selection
189 opportunities to all planning units containing undeveloped and unprotected land classified within

190 the RCN, and progressively selected areas with the lowest cost per hectare until meeting the
191 cumulative area target.

192 For the species-based objective, we use methods and species data from Lawler et al.
193 (2020) to identify cost-effective protected area networks for species conservation under climate
194 change. The conservation prioritization is formulated as a *minimum set* problem – which
195 identifies the set of planning units that most cost-effectively achieves a predefined set of species-
196 specific targets – and solved it with the Marxan conservation planning software (Ball et al.
197 2009). We base our analysis on the most comprehensive scenario of the original study (“all”),
198 which includes protection targets for 1,460 current and future species distributions, 100% of
199 climatic refugia, and 20% of climate corridors. In line with the analytical framework of our
200 study, we only consider species presence on undeveloped land in each planning unit. To achieve
201 30% protected area coverage for the contiguous U.S., we scale species-specific protection targets
202 as a function of species range using an inverse hyperbolic sine transformation:

$$203 \quad target = \sinh^{-1} \left(\frac{range}{\alpha} \right) * \alpha \quad (1)$$

204 This function has similar properties as the transformation function proposed by
205 Rodriguez et al. (2004) for global species conservation planning—namely, targets that start at
206 100% of range size for species with small ranges, with percentages gradually declining as
207 species ranges increase. Here, α is a scaling parameter, which we adapt iteratively until the
208 optimization returned $30 \pm 1.0\%$ coverage for the conterminous US ($\alpha = 21000$). The final
209 cumulative area covered 30.69% (2.35 M km²) of the study area, slightly higher than the 30.00%
210 of the other objectives.

211 For the carbon-based objective, we prioritize protection of grasslands and forest at risk of
212 being converted to another land use. We obtained high-resolution maps of remnant forests and

213 grasslands and shrublands in the conterminous US from Fargione et al. (2018). In their study,
214 Fargione et al. (2018) estimated future forest and grassland/shrubland conversion risk based
215 upon conversion rates of different types of vegetation during 1986-2000 (forest vegetation) and
216 2008-2012 (grassland/shrubland vegetation). Conversion rates are based upon vegetation
217 clearance resulting in a change in land use; this does not include vegetation clearing where the
218 land use does not change (e.g. forest clearance as part of timber rotations). All grasslands were
219 considered at-risk of conversion, but due to the low rates of past forest conversion, only the top
220 25% of forest vegetation types converted in the past were considered at high risk of conversion
221 in the near future—see Fargione et al. (2018) for details on the methodology. We overlapped
222 these maps with undeveloped and unprotected lands used in this study to identify areas available
223 for protection within grasslands/shrublands, high-risk forests, and all other (low-risk) forests. All
224 planning units containing undeveloped and unprotected grassland/shrubland or high-risk forest
225 were selected for protection regardless of costs. In total, these areas accounted for 387,333 km²
226 (5.06%) of all undeveloped and unprotected land, costing \$458 billion (\$11,816 ha⁻¹). To reach
227 the 30% target at minimum cost, we then progressively selected areas containing low-risk forest
228 with the lowest cost per hectare until meeting the cumulative area target.

229

230 *Performance metrics*

231 To compare potential costs, we calculated the total sum of the costs of undeveloped land
232 selected for each objective based on the 2010 fair market value data (Nolte 2020) used to select
233 the cheapest undeveloped private lands for each objective, as described previously. To calculate
234 ecosystem representation within the new protected area network of each objective, we obtained
235 the most recent map of world ecosystems (Sayre et al. 2020) and excluded all ecosystems

236 classified as ‘converted’ from their natural state. A total of 148 ‘natural’ ecosystems were
237 included in the analysis. We overlapped these natural ecosystems with all undeveloped and
238 unprotected land selected within each objective, as well as all land classified as GAP 1 or 2
239 protected areas. Areas overlapping with ‘converted’ ecosystems were not included in the
240 representation analysis, leaving 85.73% of the area-based network, 94.05% of landscape-based
241 network, 85.78% of species-based network, 89.59% of the carbon-based network, and 95.69% of
242 the existing protected area network (GAP 1 or 2) available to assess ecosystem representation.
243 To calculate the Representation Achievement Score we used the R-package “ConsTarget”
244 (Jantke et al. 2019) which calculates the mean proportional target achievement for all
245 biodiversity features of interest found in a conservation network or protected area estate. We
246 calculated the score against targets of 30% for all 148 natural ecosystems using the selected area
247 for each objective as well as the existing baseline PA network.

248 To estimate climate mitigation potential for each objective, we calculated the total
249 estimated carbon emissions attributed to grasslands/shrublands and high-risk forests based upon
250 data from Fargione et al. (2018). This spatial data estimates the per hectare carbon emissions
251 (Mg C ha^{-1}) from grasslands and shrublands, and albedo-adjusted per hectare carbon emissions
252 (Mg C ha^{-1}) for the top 25% of forests at greatest risk of conversion—see Fargione et al. (2018)
253 for details on the methodology. We resampled the existing datasets to align with our 900 m^2
254 pixels of undeveloped and unprotected land. For the grassland/shrubland dataset, we multiplied
255 the original values (in Mg C ha^{-1}) by 0.09 ha to obtain Mg C estimates per pixel (900 m^2). For
256 the forest dataset, we divided the original values (in dag C ha^{-1}) by 100,000 and multiplied by
257 0.09 ha to obtain the same Mg C estimates per pixel. Emissions estimates were attributed to all
258 undeveloped and unprotected land selected within each objective and summed to achieve the

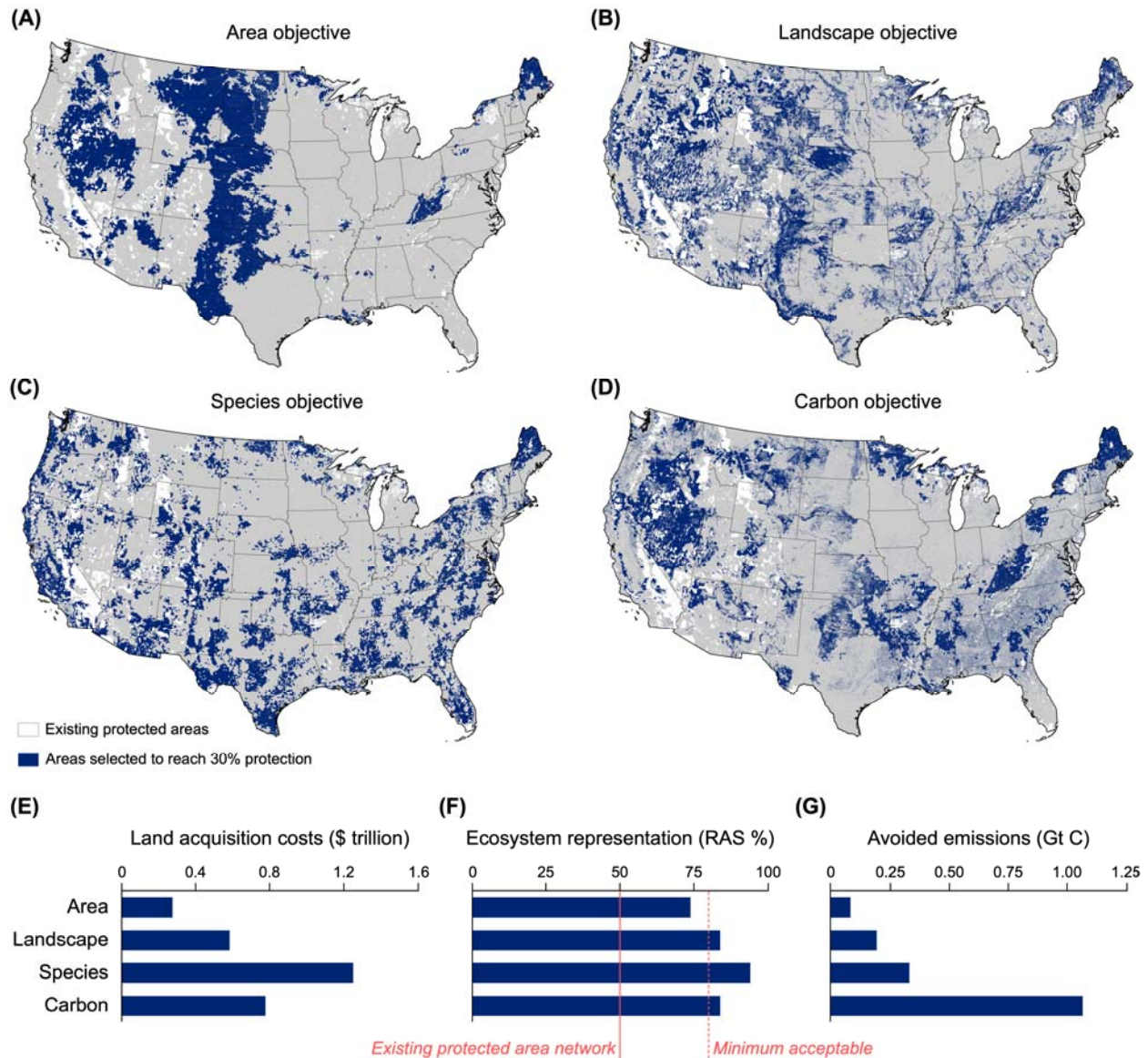
259 total climate mitigation potential for each objective in avoided emissions from future grassland,
260 shrubland, and forest conversion (Gt C).

261

262 **Results**

263 A purely area-based objective would lead to a large protection bias in the western plains
264 and northern Great Basin, with minimal representation in the Southeast (Fig. 2a). This approach
265 would do little to improve the existing distributional biases of the current protected area network,
266 falling below the acceptable threshold for ecosystem representation. This objective also offers
267 the lowest climate mitigation opportunity, potentially avoiding just 0.08 Gt C in emissions from
268 grassland and forest conversion. While this objective presents the cheapest option for the 30x30
269 target, costs for complete land acquisition could still reach upwards of \$270 billion ($\$1,567 \text{ ha}^{-1}$).
270 Approximately 33% of the areas selected for protection under this scenario are currently under
271 GAP 3 protection status (Fig. 3a).

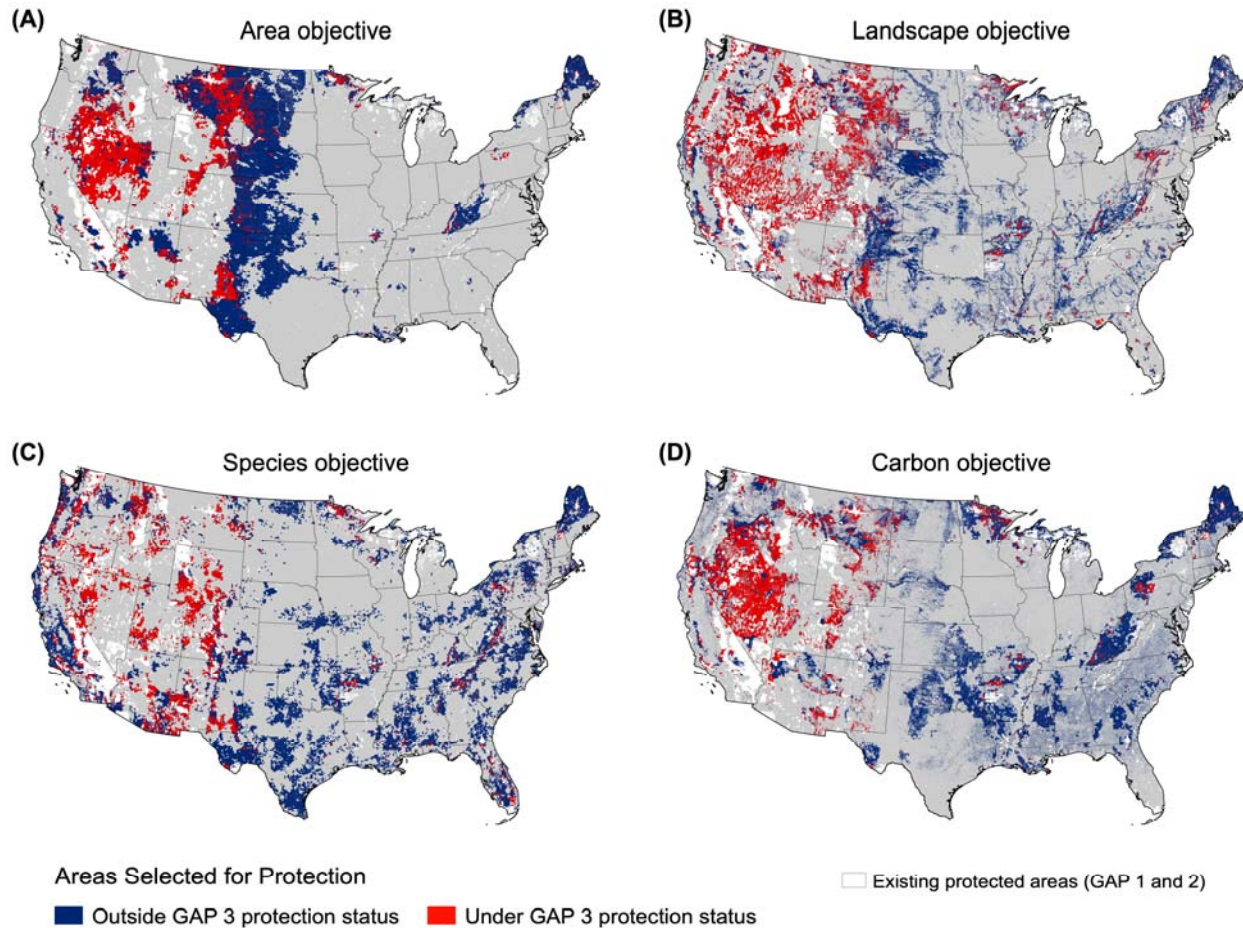
272



273

274 **Fig. 2.** Outlook of the ‘30x30’ target under different objectives. (A-D) The most cost-effective
275 areas to achieve 30% protection of land in the conterminous US according to area, landscape,
276 species, and carbon-based objectives. **I** Total estimated land acquisition costs for areas selected
277 in each objective. (F) Ecosystem representation within each objective based upon representation
278 achievement score (RAS). (G) Climate mitigation potential for each objective based upon
279 avoided emissions of grasslands, shrublands, and forests at greatest risk of future land
280 conversion.

281



282

283 **Fig. 3.** Extent of undeveloped land selected for protection across the (a) area, (b) landscape, (c)
284 species, and (d) carbon objectives, highlighting areas currently classified as GAP 3 protected
285 areas (red).

286

287 The landscape-based objective also has a large presence in the West, but unlike the area-
288 based objective, it is more representative of the Southeast, and most states have some
289 representation in the new protected area network (Fig. 2b). Though the size of individual
290 protected areas is smaller under this objective, the network is well-connected, often consisting of
291 long stretches of protected areas. This approach meets the minimum acceptable representation

292 score (RAS 84%), but many of the proposed areas surround existing protected areas, where
293 representation of these ecosystems may already be high in the baseline. The greater inclusion of
294 grasslands and forests at risk of conversion increases the climate mitigation potential more than
295 twice that of the area-based objective (0.20 Gt C). These ecosystem and emissions
296 improvements, however, come at more than twice the cost of the area-based objective (\$580
297 billion; \$3,366 ha⁻¹). This objective is the most inclusive of areas managed for multiple uses,
298 with nearly 42% of selected areas currently under GAP 3 protection status (Fig. 3b).

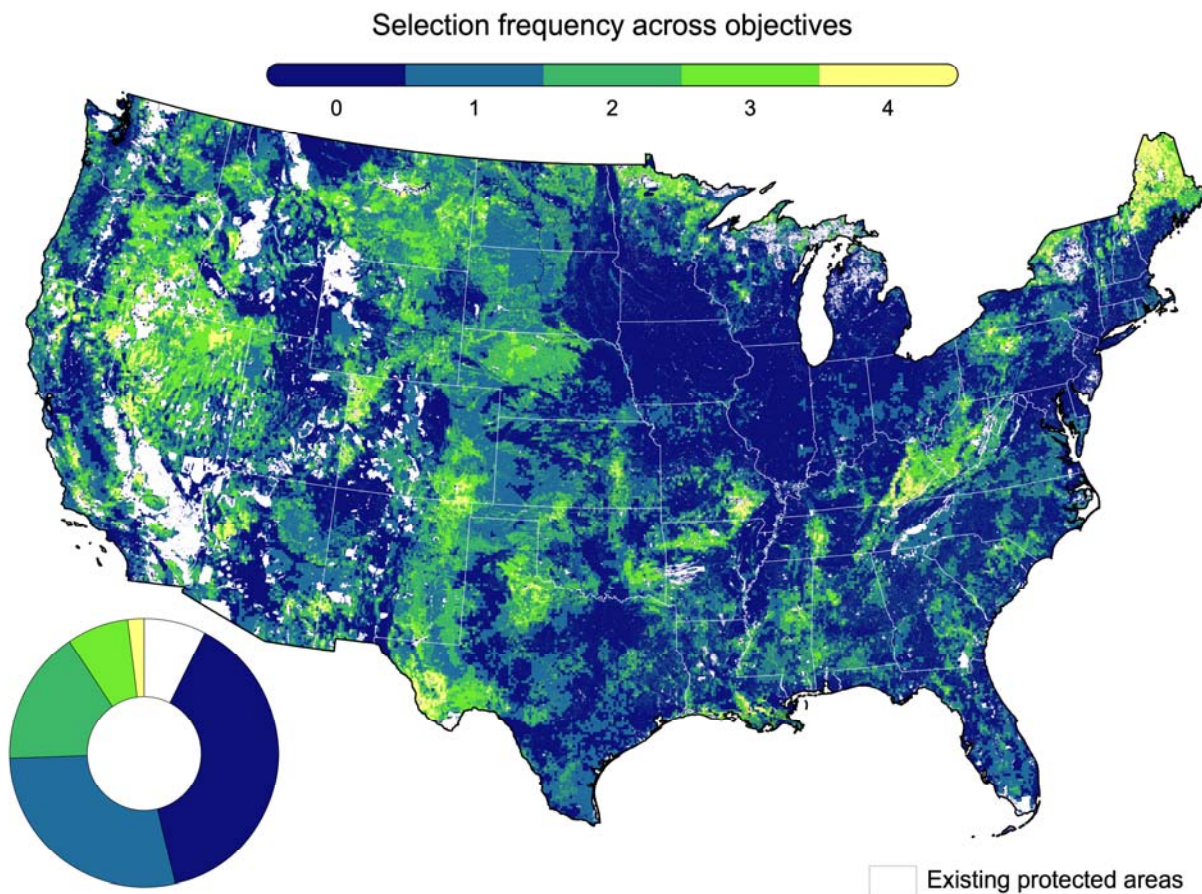
299 The species-based objective produces the most representative protected area network of
300 all objectives, with a greater presence in the eastern and southern U.S. and a smaller presence in
301 the western plains and Great Basin where existing protected areas are concentrated (Fig. 2c). The
302 proposed protected areas are larger but more dispersed than in the landscape objective. This
303 objective comes closest to achieving the ecosystem representation target (RAS 94%), and this
304 greater diversity also leads to greater climate mitigation potential (0.33 Gt C). However, these
305 improvements come at a cost upwards of \$1.25 trillion (\$7,038 ha⁻¹)—more than twice the cost
306 of the landscape objective. This network is the least inclusive of areas currently under GAP 3
307 protection status (27%) (Fig. 3c).

308 Per the design of the carbon-based objective, the resulting protected area network
309 consists of a more representative coverage of forested and grassland ecosystems, achieving an
310 equivalent representation score as the landscape objective (RAS 84%). Because most forests
311 threatened with conversion are within the southeast, protection is more representative of this
312 region than all other objectives, but the higher costs of land in these areas result in smaller
313 patches of protection across the region (Fig. 2d); elsewhere, where forests are less threatened
314 with conversion, larger patches of protection exist on land that is exceptionally cheaper to

315 acquire. This is the second most expensive objective (\$775 billion; \$4499 ha⁻¹), but it would
316 deliver the greatest climate mitigation potential (1.07 Gt C)—more than three times the species-
317 based objective and nearly 13 times the area-based objective. Approximately 30% of these areas
318 are under GAP 3 protection status (Fig. 3d).

319 Overall, we find little congruence in priority areas across objectives (Fig. 4). Areas that
320 were selected for protection under all four objectives cover just 2% (0.15 M km²) of the
321 conterminous US, primarily concentrated in the Great Basin, northern Maine, western
322 Appalachian Plateau, and southwestern Texas. An additional 7.5% (0.57 M km²) of the country
323 was selected under three objectives, and 16% (1.24 M km²) under two objectives. Most
324 concerning, 28% of the country (2.16 M km²) was selected under just one objective, emphasizing
325 the heterogeneity of biodiversity, ecosystems, and land-uses in the conterminous US and the
326 challenge of finding areas that can meet diverse objectives. A large proportion of the country
327 (39%; 2.97 M km²) was never selected for protection, most notably in the production-intensive
328 Midwest and the highly developed Northeast Coast.

329



330

331 **Fig. 4.** Extent and proportion of the conterminous United States selected for protection under
332 multiple objectives.

333

334 Discussion

335 The 30x30 target will not be a panacea for the United States' conservation problems, but
336 with the right objectives and actions, the target can be an important policy vehicle to deliver
337 meaningful conservation and climate outcomes. Biden's support for this international 30x30 goal
338 is a promising signal of a return to the country's global citizenship in the fight for conservation
339 and climate action. While no single objective delivers the maximum benefits across all
340 biodiversity and climate goals of the 30x30 target, the administration still has the opportunity to
341 create positive outcomes during the next decade. However, translating this global conservation

342 commitment into national-level actions will be challenging. We propose several considerations
343 that will be crucial to ensuring the next decade of environmental protection is done efficiently,
344 cost-effectively, and equitably to maximize benefits for people and nature.

345

346 *Set immediate and clear objectives to guide prioritizations of the 30% target*

347 We have demonstrated how strategic implementation of the 30x30 target will require
348 clear objectives to understand trade-offs and maximize conservation and climate outcomes. Yet
349 even with the relatively simple objectives we have examined here, only 2% of the conterminous
350 US was selected for protection under all four objectives. Contrast these limited ‘no regrets’
351 priorities with the 28% of lands selected for just a single objective and the trade-offs in priority
352 areas becomes more consequential. Such a small percentage of ‘no regrets’ lands means
353 transparency and consistency in how resource allocation decisions are made will be paramount.

354 It is encouraging that, with the simultaneous signing of the *Presidential Memorandum on*
355 *Scientific Integrity and Evidence-Based Policymaking*, President Biden is committed to ensuring
356 that the administrations’ decisions will be informed by “the best available science and data”
357 (EOP 2021). Biodiversity and climate objectives for the 30x30 target will need to be guided by
358 our best available knowledge across scientific disciplines to find solutions that can maximize
359 benefits for species, ecosystems, landowners, industries, and our climate.

360

361 *Protect what is threatened, restore where there is opportunity*

362 To create real impact, we must identify where the most pressing abatable threats are and
363 where we can achieve the highest return on investment for actions that mitigate those threats
364 (Withey et al. 2012). For example, prioritizing places with large amounts of non-threatened

365 above-ground biomass may prove less impactful than prioritizing forests that are most likely to
366 be converted or harvested in the coming decades. Additionally, prioritizing areas within species
367 current distribution ranges may not generate the long-term benefits of prioritizing areas within
368 both current and future distribution ranges under climate change. Such a strategy can facilitate
369 the design of the 30x30 target over the next decade and avoid placing protected areas in locations
370 under minimal threat—a characteristic that plagues the global protected area network (Joppa and
371 Pfaff 2011).

372 While we have focused this outlook on protection, identifying restoration opportunities
373 will also be important for delivering Biden’s goal of restoring public lands and waters. Similar to
374 our present analysis, priority areas for restoration will be influenced by specific objectives,
375 actions, costs and feasibility (Brown et al. 2015). For example, restoration in the eastern Midwest
376 may deliver the greatest climate mitigation potential, but restoration in the Southeast and West
377 Coast may yield the greatest benefits for biodiversity (Strassburg et al. 2020). Restoration
378 activities can be expensive with low probabilities of success, so identifying clear strategies for
379 resource allocation will be essential (Rohr et al. 2018). Evidence suggests that natural
380 regeneration can lead to greater restoration success rates at lesser costs than active restoration
381 (e.g. seeding, planting, burning) (Crouzeilles et al. 2017). Thus, the administration should
382 consider where there are greater opportunities to achieve cost-effective and successful restoration
383 outcomes.

384

385 *Establish appropriate performance metrics to evaluate progress and impact*

386 Crucial to this approach will be the design of meaningful performance and evaluation
387 protocols that can sufficiently track the progress of these interventions against their stated

388 objectives. To date, there is no current international published guidance explicitly linked to the
389 30x30 agenda in this regard. Establishing a core set of meaningful indicators linked to the stated
390 goals of the 30x30 plan from the outset will help ensure the objectives are aligned, monitored,
391 and measured against quantifiable outcomes. Drawing from the post-2020 Biodiversity
392 Monitoring Framework (OECD 2019) and using a broad suite of biodiversity indicators for
393 species, ecosystems and their services, landscape connectivity, and climate would ensure that the
394 US is aligned with international reporting obligations for biodiversity, while setting domestic
395 precedent.

396 Further alignment and development of measures of social equity, inclusion, and racial
397 and social justice will be equally critical. These considerations of “fairness” in conservation have
398 increased over the last decade, with growing concerns over who bears the burden of conservation
399 interventions, who is excluded from decision-making, and whose rights and interests are
400 recognized in the process (Friedman et al. 2018). Social and culturally inclusive performance
401 metrics should be identified that can properly evaluate impacts of protection on local
402 communities across multiple dimensions, including economic living standards, governance and
403 empowerment, social relations, and subjective well-being (McKinnon et al. 2016).

404

405 *Capitalize on the diversity of policy instruments for protection*

406 Effective conservation outcomes can be achieved using many policy levers. Protected
407 areas are just one instrument in our conservation toolkit. In the last few years, the International
408 Union for Conservation of Nature has pushed for greater adoption of other effective area-based
409 conservation measures (OECMs), which aim to achieve long-term biodiversity conservation
410 under a more diverse consideration of important ecosystem services, greater recognition of local

411 livelihoods and cultural values, and a more inclusive suite of governmental, organizational, and
412 indigenous or community stakeholders (Laffoley et al. 2017). These bottom-up approaches to
413 conservation recognize the contributions and knowledge of indigenous management, increase
414 probabilities of success, inspire environmental stewardship within communities, and can be more
415 cost-efficient to implement in the long-term.

416 Such mechanisms will be important to achieving the 30x30 goal for the incoming
417 administration and should be weighed carefully against more restrictive protected areas
418 expansion. Furthermore, collaboration between federal, state, tribal communities, NGOs, and
419 land trusts will be required to achieve a comprehensive 30% network across the United States.
420 The executive order’s commitment to “stakeholder engagement from agricultural and forest
421 landowners, fishermen, Tribes, States, Territories, local officials, and others” (EOP 2021) shows
422 that the administration is aiming for active inclusion of diverse stakeholders in implementing the
423 target, and we hope such inclusive processes will be delivered in the coming years.

424 While the existing evidence base tends to favor a land-sparing approach to conservation
425 in production landscapes (i.e. maximizing yields on existing farms and sparing surrounding lands
426 for biodiversity) (Balmford et al. 2018), integrating conservation into “working” lands and seas
427 will be critical for delivering positive outcomes for nature that should not be discounted in
428 achieving the 30x30 goal. Improved management practices (e.g. longer timber rotations or
429 improved fisheries management) have the potential to produce greater biodiversity and climate
430 mitigation benefits (Fargione et al. 2018) for potentially less costs than establishing new
431 protected areas. Revisiting domestic policies that subsidize harmful agriculture, fisheries and
432 forestry activities is now recognized as one of the most impactful ways to recalibrate government
433 expenditures to better protect biodiversity (Deutz et al. 2020).

434 Conservation easements, agri-environmental schemes, and other private land
435 conservation programs have been championed globally to enhance ecosystem services in
436 production lands and waters (Kamal et al. 2015), yet these instruments are underutilized in the
437 United States (Bargelt et al. 2020). The executive order again shows promise that these
438 alternative instruments will be included within the 30x30 target, with desires to increase adoption
439 of “climate-smart agricultural practices that produce verifiable carbon reductions and
440 sequestrations” (EOP 2021). However, the administration must also recognize the importance for
441 biodiversity in production lands and seas, and a greater diversity of these programs should be
442 promoted that can deliver multiple environmental benefits beyond just climate mitigation.

443 Finally, in some areas, significant environmental benefits could also be gained within
444 existing protected areas. For example, 27-42% of areas selected in our different objectives are
445 currently classified as GAP 3 protected areas (i.e. managed for multiple uses, such as logging
446 and mining) (Fig. 3). These areas could be upgraded to GAP 1 or 2 status to offer more explicit
447 biodiversity protection.

448 Delivering on Biden’s 30x30 commitment will be challenging, but several of these
449 challenges can be mitigated using the systematic conservation planning framework we have
450 outlined here. The executive order is a promising first step. To ensure efficient, effective, and
451 equitable conservation outcomes can be achieved, the Biden administration must now focus on
452 establishing clear objectives to guide prioritizations of places and actions for biodiversity
453 protection and climate mitigation, using appropriate performance metrics to ensure interventions
454 maximize environmental benefits and minimize perverse outcomes for people, communities, and
455 industries. While we have focused this discussion on terrestrial systems in the United States,
456 these issues also apply to the freshwater and ocean systems domestically and in the 84 countries

457 that have already pledged their commitment to this global 30x30 target (WWF 2020). Countries
458 adopting core principles of systematic conservation planning can prioritize the appropriate
459 actions through inclusive and democratic processes to ensure cost-effective priorities are
460 achieved within their own unique contexts. As the world watches President Biden propel the US
461 into the next decade of climate action, we urge the administration to seize this opportunity to
462 advance international conservation efforts and deliver smart national solutions to the escalating
463 biodiversity and climate crises.

464

465 **Literature Cited**

- 466 Ball IR, Possingham HP, Watts ME. 2009. Marxan and relatives: software for spatial
467 conservation prioritization. Pages 185-195 in Moilanen A, Wilson KA, Possingham HP,
468 editors. *Spatial Conservation Prioritization: Quantitative Methods and Computational*
469 *Tools*. Oxford University Press, New York.
- 470 Balmford B, Green RE, Onial M, Phalan B, Balmford A. 2019. How imperfect can land sparing
471 be before land sharing is more favourable for wild species? *Journal of Applied Ecology*
472 **56**:73-84.
- 473 Bargelt L, Fortin MJ, Murray DL. 2020. Assessing connectivity and the contribution of private
474 lands to protected area networks in the United States. *PLoS One* **15**:e0228946.
- 475 Barnes MD, Glew L, Wyborn C, Craigie ID. 2018. Prevent perverse outcomes from global
476 protected area policy. *Nature Ecology and Evolution* **2**:759-762.
- 477 Brown CJ, Bode M, Venter O, Barnes MD, McGowan J, Runge CA, Watson JEM, Possingham
478 HP. 2015. Effective conservation requires clear objectives and prioritizing actions, not
479 places or species. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* **112**:E4342.

480 Crouzeilles R, Ferreira MS, Chazdon RL, Lindenmayer DB, Sansevero JBB, Monteiro L,
481 Iribarrem A, Latawiec AE, Strassburg BBN. 2017. Ecological restoration success is higher
482 for natural regeneration than for active restoration in tropical forests. *Science Advances*
483 **3**:e1701345.

484 Deutz A, Heal GM, Niu R, Swanson E, Townshend T, Li Z, Delmar A, Meghji A, Sethi SA,
485 Tobin-de la Puente J. 2020. Financing nature: closing the global biodiversity financing gap.
486 The Paulson Institute, The Nature Conservancy, and the Cornell Atkinson Center for
487 Sustainability.

488 Dietz MS, Belote RT, Gage J, Hahn BA. 2020. An assessment of vulnerable wildlife, their
489 habitats, and protected areas in the contiguous United States. *Biological Conservation*
490 **248**:108646.

491 EOP (Executive Office of the President). 2021. Executive Order 14008–Tackling the climate
492 crisis at home and abroad. 86 FR 7619. *Federal Register*, Washington, DC.

493 Fargione JE, et al. 2018. Natural climate solutions for the United States. *Science Advances*
494 **4**:eaat1869.

495 Friedman RS, Law EA, Bennett NJ, Ives CD, Thorn JPR, Wilson KA. 2018. How just and just
496 how? A systematic review of social equity in conservation research. *Environmental*
497 *Research Letters* **13**:053001.

498 Gonzalez P, Wang F, Notaro M, Vimont DJ, Williams JW. 2018. Disproportionate magnitude of
499 climate change in the United States national parks. *Environmental Research Letters*
500 **13**:104001.

- 501 Jantke K, Kuempel CD, McGowan J, Chauvenet ALM, Possingham HP. 2019. Metrics for
502 evaluating representation target achievement in protected area networks. *Diversity and*
503 *Distributions* **25**:170-174.
- 504 Jenkins CN, Van Houtan KS, Pimm SL, Sexton JO. 2015. US protected lands mismatch
505 biodiversity priorities. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* **112**:5081-
506 5086.
- 507 Joppa LN, Pfaff A. 2011. Global protected area impacts. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B*
508 **278**:1633-1638.
- 509 Kamal S, Grodzińska-Jurczak M, Brown G. 2015. Conservation on private land: a review of
510 global strategies with a proposed classification system. *Journal of Environmental Planning*
511 *and Management* **58**:576-597.
- 512 Kroner REG, et al. 2019. The uncertain future of protected lands and waters. *Science* **364**:881-
513 886.
- 514 Laffoley D, Dudley N, Jonas H, MacKinnon D, MacKinnon K, Hockings M, Woodley S. 2017.
515 An introduction to ‘other effective area-based conservation measures’ under Aichi Target
516 11 of the Convention on Biological Diversity: origin, interpretation and emerging ocean
517 issues. *Aquatic Conservation* **27**:130-137.
- 518 Lawler JJ, Rinnan DS, Michalak JL, Withey JC, Randels CR, Possingham HP. 2020. Planning
519 for climate change through additions to a national protected area network: implications for
520 cost and configuration. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B* **375**:20190117.
- 521 McKinnon MC, et al. 2016. What are the effects of nature conservation on human well-being? A
522 systematic map of empirical evidence from developing countries. *Environmental Evidence*
523 **5**:8.

- 524 Nolte C. 2020. High-resolution land value maps reveal underestimation of conservation costs in
525 the United States. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* **117**:29577-
526 29583.
- 527 OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). 2019. The Post-2020
528 Biodiversity Framework: targets, indicators and measurability implications at global and
529 national level. Interim Report, November version. OECD, Montreal, Canada.
- 530 Rodrigues ASL, et al. 2004. Global gap analysis: priority regions for expanding the global
531 protected-area network. *BioScience* **54**:1092-1100.
- 532 Rohr JR, Bernhardt ES, Cadotte MW, Clements WH. 2018. The ecology and economics of
533 restoration: when, what, where, and how to restore ecosystems. *Ecology and Society* **23**:15.
- 534 Sayre R, et al. 2020. An assessment of the representation of ecosystems in global protected areas
535 using new maps of World Climate Regions and World Ecosystems. *Global Ecology and*
536 *Conservation* **21**:e00860.
- 537 Stralberg D, Carroll C, Nielsen SE. 2020. Toward a climate-informed North American protected
538 areas network: incorporating climate-change refugia and corridors in conservation
539 planning. *Conservation Letters* **13**:e12712.
- 540 Strassburg BBN, et al. 2020. Global priority areas for ecosystem restoration. *Nature* **586**:724-
541 729.
- 542 TNC (The Nature Conservancy). 2018. Resilient and Connected Network. TNC, Washington,
543 DC. Available from <http://maps.tnc.org/resilientland/> (accessed December 2020).
- 544 UNEP-WCMC (UN Environment Programme World Conservation Monitoring Centre). 2020.
545 World Database of Protected Areas. Protected area profile for United States of America.

546 UNEP-WCMC, Gland, Switzerland. Available from
547 <https://www.protectedplanet.net/country/USA> (accessed December 2020).
548 USGS (United States Geological Survey) GAP (Gap Analysis Project). 2020. Protected Areas
549 Database of the United States (PAD-US) 2.1. US Geological Survey data release. USGS,
550 Washington, DC. Available from <https://doi.org/10.5066/P92QM3NT> (accessed December
551 2020).
552 Venter O, Magrath A, Outram N, Klein CJ, Possingham HP, Di Marco M, Watson JEM. 2018.
553 Bias in protected-area location and its effects on long-term aspirations of biodiversity
554 conventions. *Conservation Biology* **32**:127-134.
555 Withey JC, et al. 2012. Maximising return on conservation investment in the conterminous USA.
556 *Ecology Letters* **15**:1249-1256.
557 WWF (World Wide Fund for Nature). 2020. Endorsers and Supporters. Leaders' Pledge For
558 Nature, Gland, Switzerland. Available from <https://www.leaderspledgefornature.org>
559 (accessed February 2021).
560 Yang L, et al. 2018. A new generation of the United States National Land Cover Database:
561 requirements, research priorities, design, and implementation strategies. *ISPRS Journal of*
562 *Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing* **146**:108-123.