

1 **Degradation of Visible Autumn Icons and Conservation Opportunities: Trends in**
2 **Deciduous Forest Loss in the Contiguous US**

3 **L. M. Dreiss¹, and J.W. Malcom¹**

4 ¹Center for Conservation Innovation, Defenders of Wildlife, Washington, DC 20036, USA.

5 Corresponding author: Lindsay Dreiss (lrosa@defenders.org)

6 **Key Points:**

- 7 • Temperate deciduous forests aesthetics attract visitors to experience nature, but
- 8 degradation and loss can hinder connections.
- 9 • US ecoregions with the greatest leaf-peeping opportunities are underrepresented in the
- 10 protected areas and vulnerable to additional losses.
- 11 • Differences in predictions scenarios emphasize the importance of conservation action,
- 12 which may be linked to human connections with nature.
- 13
- 14

15 **Abstract**

16 Temperate deciduous forests are one of the most visible biomes on Earth because of their autumn
17 aesthetics and because they harbor some of the most heavily populated regions. Their ability to
18 attract visitors may increase opportunities for people to experience nature, which has been linked
19 to greater conservation action. Identifying regions with high leaf-peeping opportunities and
20 regions where color has been lost to landscape conversion may help to inform these connections.
21 We use spatial overlay analyses to quantify temperate deciduous forest coverage, disturbance,
22 and protections in each U.S. ecoregion. We evaluated recent (1984-2016) and predicted (2016-
23 2050) disturbance under extreme future scenarios. Almost all ecoregions saw a decline in
24 deciduous forest cover between 1985 and 2016. Some ecoregions with the greatest opportunities
25 for leaf-peeping are also underrepresented in the protected areas network and vulnerable to
26 additional losses. Under economic-growth forecasting scenarios, losses are predicted to continue.
27 However, environmentally focused scenarios suggest there is still opportunity to reverse
28 deciduous forest loss in some ecoregions. Differences in forest loss between predictions
29 scenarios emphasize the importance of human approaches in securing environmental stability.
30 Increasing public exposure to temperate forests may help ensure conservation of more natural
31 areas and preserve the quantity and quality of autumn forest viewing.

32 **1 Introduction**

33 Accelerating landscape change threatens biodiversity and climate stability worldwide,
34 with significant implications for society through a degradation of nature's benefits to people (i.e.,
35 "ecosystem services"; Carvahlo and Szlafsztein, 2019; Colvin et al., 2019; Diaz et al., 2020;
36 Gómez-Baggethun et al., 2019; IPBES, 2019; Sweeney et al., 2004). The science makes clear
37 that transformative action is needed to address the threats to nature, with major initiatives being
38 developed at national and international levels (e.g., Convention on Biological Diversity, 2020;
39 Udall, 2020). While preservation and restoration are common strategies for addressing these
40 crises (e.g., Clancy et al., 2020; Dinerstein et al., 2019, 2020; Minin et al., 2017; Peng et al.,
41 2019; Scolozzi et al., 2014), approaches may also include increasing opportunities for people to
42 experience natural environments: when people connect with nature they are also more likely to
43 act in ways that benefit the Earth (Ives et al., 2016). Axiological relationships are often tied to

44 feelings of duty and stewardship and previous research suggests a similar connection between a
45 person's bond with nature and the probability of them taking conservation action (Cooper et al.,
46 2016). Connections with nature can happen emotionally, physically, intellectually, and
47 spiritually, but most often, through direct experience (Wang et al., 2016). Identifying highly
48 visible environments and understanding past and future changes that people have or will
49 experience is therefore important to understanding one social dimension of conservation.

50 Although they only cover ~7.5% of Earth's terrestrial land surface, temperate forests
51 harbor exceptional biodiversity and carbon stores (Hofmeister et al., 2019; Keith et al., 2009; Pan
52 et al., 2011; Thurner et al., 2013) and provide key ecosystem services such as water filtration
53 (Brandt et al., 2014; DellaSala et al., 2011). Further, temperate forests are one of the most visible
54 biomes because heavily populated and developed regions, including in the United States, are
55 located in or near the biome (Haddad et al., 2015). At the same time, a long history of settlement
56 and development has had dramatic impacts on the forest ecosystems and their biological
57 diversity (e.g., Gunn et al., 2019; Pennington et al., 2010; Thompson and Jones, 1999). Although
58 most of the major land changes may have occurred in the past, more recent anthropogenic
59 landscape modifications mean continued forest loss, biodiversity loss, and degradation of
60 ecosystem services. Understanding recent and predicted temperate forest conversion can help
61 identify spatial patterns and clarify the critical role of human perceptions of change that may
62 affect forest conservation.

63 Among the ecosystem services provided by temperate forests, the biome provides a
64 unique aesthetic appeal with economic benefits. About 15% of the tree species of the temperate
65 regions of the world change their leaf color from green to yellow or red in autumn, a percentage
66 that can reach 70% of species in some regions of the US (Archetti et al., 2013). In this respect,
67 deciduous forests are very visible cultural icons. Autumn aesthetic is often described in terms of
68 its "complex", "reassuring", and "soothing" qualities, attracting outsiders seeking beauty and
69 relaxation in special landscapes (Eroglu and Demir, 2016). As such, many U.S. cultures and
70 economies rely on autumn traditions and 'leaf-peeping' tourism, which contributes billions of
71 dollars each year - up to a quarter of annual tourism profit - to state economies of the eastern US.
72 (Sandifer et al., 2015). Continued landscape conversion threatens to reduce the autumn color
73 display directly (i.e., tree removal) or indirectly through increased forest stress, and introduces

74 concerns for reduced future aesthetic values and tourism revenues. Ultimately, fewer visitors to
75 these forests also means fewer opportunities to connect people and nature.

76 Given the current global biodiversity and climate crises, more conservation action is
77 needed and there is much to gain with temperate forests as a connection between people and
78 nature. The reverse - using personal connections with nature to specifically emphasize
79 conservation of temperate forests - could also result in major contributions to biodiversity
80 conservation and climate mitigation. In the U.S., temperate forests are home to high species
81 endemism and hotspots of imperiled species biodiversity (Rosa and Malcom, 2020).
82 Additionally, intact temperate forests remove sufficient atmospheric CO₂ to reduce national
83 annual net emissions by 11% and may be a significant contributor to global climate stabilization
84 (Dinerstein et al., 2020; Moomaw et al., 2019). Studies suggest that U.S. temperate forests are
85 likely to act as carbon sinks for decades to come (Finzi et al., 2020). However, most remaining
86 examples of natural ecosystems are fragmented and highly modified with intensive human
87 activities, posing continued threats to biota, carbon sequestration, and ecosystem aesthetics.

88 General trends in temperate forest land use emphasize continuing rural residential
89 development largely driven by aesthetics, climate and access to recreation. Beyond the direct
90 impacts of forest loss and expanding anthropogenic land cover, biodiversity and ecosystem
91 functions are likely to suffer from fragmentation; forests are smaller, more isolated, and have a
92 greater area located near the edge. This includes degraded ecosystem processes, reduced species
93 diversity, and changes in species all of which affect autumn foliage viewing quality (Haddad et
94 al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019). Fragmentation of the forested landscape may
95 also contribute to the degradation of autumn foliage viewing in a way that is less apparent than
96 with outright forest loss: viewers may fail to notice the creeping change in viewing quality until
97 it is too late (i.e., boiling frog theory; Soga and Gaston, 2018).

98 Given the importance of temperate forests as a symbol for nature and its beauty, forest
99 conversion is among the most distinct impacts of human activity on the forest environment and
100 aesthetic. Here, we identify to what extent each U.S. ecoregion is characterized by deciduous
101 forest and quantify recent (1984-2016) and predicted (2016-2050) forest disturbance. The ability
102 to identify regions with high leaf-peeping opportunities and regions where color has been lost to

103 landscape conversion will help to inform connections between people and the forested landscape.
104 Additionally, understanding patterns of temperate forest loss is also critical to guide efforts in
105 biodiversity conservation and climate mitigation: new calls to expand the protected areas
106 network will benefit from this and subsequent knowledge that builds upon these findings.

107 **2 Materials and Methods**

108 We used spatial overlay analyses to estimate temperate forest losses and predicted
109 changes across the U.S., summarized by EPA Level 2 ecoregions (EPA, 2006). Two main
110 datasets were used for these calculations. First, the National Land Cover Database (NLCD,
111 MRLC) uses digital change detection methods to identify land cover, changes and trends for the
112 United States (Homer et al., 2020). The recently released NLCD 2016 database offers improved
113 cyclical updating of U.S. land cover and associated changes, greatly advancing large-area land
114 cover monitoring through an updated suite of products (Yang et al., 2018). Forest disturbance
115 date is a key addition that provides opportunities to examine US forest cover change patterns
116 from 1985-2016. This product combines information from the NLCD 2016 change detection,
117 land cover classification, and the LANDFIRE Vegetation Change Tracker (VCT) disturbance
118 product to assess where disturbance occurred for forest areas every 2-3 year interval.

119 NLCD classifications for deciduous forest and mixed forest were included in areal
120 calculations for available years between 1992 - 2016 (1992, 2001, 2004, 2006, 2008, 2011, 2013,
121 and 2016). Modelled historical land use and land cover for the contiguous US were used for
122 estimating forest cover prior to 1992 (Sohl et al., 2018). Similarly, all forest change identified in
123 the forest disturbance date dataset between 1985-2016 that occurred on deciduous and mixed
124 forest land cover types was used in calculations of forest loss for each ecoregion.

125 Second, we used spatially explicit predictive models of 2050 land cover to estimate future
126 forest losses (Sohl et al., 2014). The most extreme forecasting scenarios which were developed
127 based on characteristics consistent with the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)
128 Special Report on Emission Scenarios were used to understand the variability in predictions. The
129 economic-growth scenario assumes rapid economic development and very high population
130 growth globally (15 billion by 2100). Initial estimates of this scenario suggest over 500,000 km²
131 of deciduous/mixed forests would be lost in the contiguous US between 2005 and 2100 (Sohl et

132 al., 2014). The sustainability scenario reflects an emphasis on environmental protection and
133 social equity with lower rates of global human population growth and intermediate levels of
134 economic development. In contrast, over 59,000 km² of forests may be gained between 2005
135 and 2100 under the environmental protection scenario (Sohl et al., 2014).

136 Data on protected areas are from the PADUS 2.0 database. We use U.S. Geological
137 Survey's Gap Analysis Program (GAP) codes, which are specific to the management intent to
138 conserve biodiversity. GAP 1 and 2 areas are managed in ways typically consistent with
139 conservation and are considered 'protected' in this context. We used ArcGIS v. 10.7 (ESRI,
140 USA) to produce maps and run analyses. Maps use the Albers Equal Area Conic projection.

141 **3 Results**

142 Fourteen out of 20 contiguous US ecoregions have >1% of their area in deciduous or
143 mixed forest, where deciduous forests are the majority ecosystem for two ecoregions (Table 1).
144 The ecoregions with the greatest proportion of deciduous forest cover include the Atlantic
145 Highlands in New England (62.0%), the Ozark/Appalachian forests (61.0%), and the mixed
146 wood shield and plains in the upper Midwest (36.9%) (Figure 1a). Almost all ecoregions saw a
147 steady decline in deciduous forest cover between 1985 and 2016, with exception of two prairie
148 ecoregions and the central plains. In general, ecoregions with less forest cover saw greater
149 percent change in deciduous forest area in the past two decades (logarithmic relationship, $r^2 =$
150 0.14) with highest percentage changes in the upper Gila Mountains (-82.2%), Tamaulipas
151 (Texas) semi-arid plains (-79.9%), and Western Sierra Madre Piedmont (-70.8%) (Figure 1a).
152 Overall, changes ranged from -82.2% to +2.25% for ecoregions and totaled -17.5% for the
153 contiguous US.

154

155

156

157

158 Table 1. Percent deciduous/mixed forest cover from 1985-2050 for ecoregions in the contiguous United States.
 159 Percent of the ecoregion that falls within protected areas managed consistently with biodiversity conservation
 160 (USGS PADUS, 2018; GAP code 1 or 2) is included. For projected forest coverage, 2050a represents the economic-
 161 growth scenario and 2050b represents the sustainability scenario.

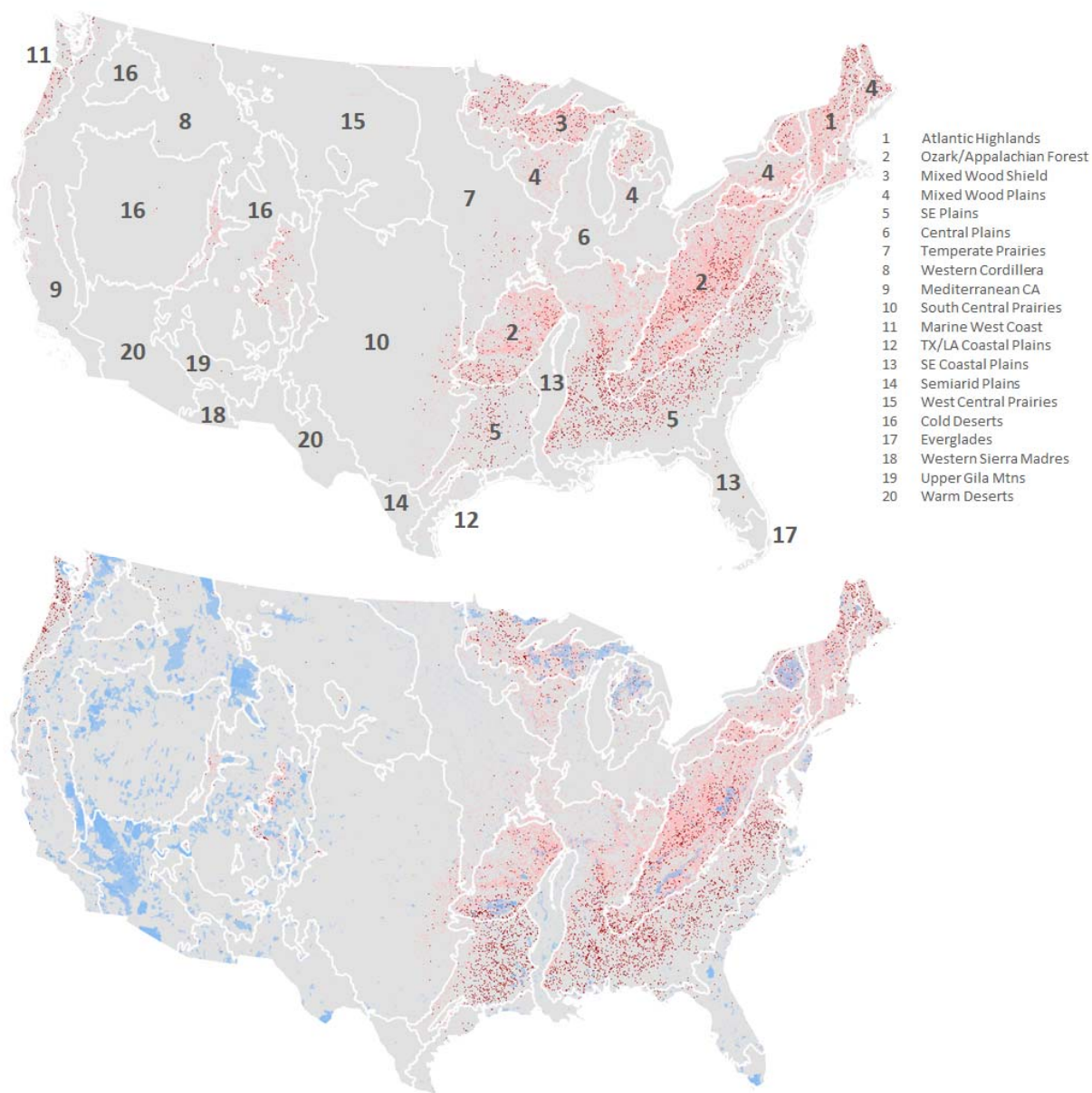
162

Ecoregion	Area	% Deciduous/Mixed Forest Cover												% Protected (PADUS)
		Level II	(ha)	1985	1988	1991	2001	2004	2006	2008	2011	2013	2016	
Atlantic Highlands	1.51E+07	68.64	68.89	69.07	62.01	63.28	62.82	62.59	62.23	62.27	62.02	63.42	68.24	13.00
Ozark/Appalachian Forest	5.21E+07	65.12	65.18	65.16	60.12	61.39	60.93	60.87	60.68	60.93	60.97	57.57	63.75	8.61
Mixed Wood Shield	2.14E+07	43.29	43.52	43.76	38.72	37.08	36.86	36.95	37.00	37.11	36.94	38.14	42.22	22.85
SE Plains	1.03E+08	36.96	37.28	37.50	27.19	26.60	26.26	26.02	25.81	26.00	25.86	30.54	38.69	2.47
Mixed Wood Plains	3.92E+07	36.37	36.72	37.09	31.68	32.82	32.67	32.63	32.52	32.54	32.45	31.15	38.36	2.94
Central Plains	2.26E+07	8.37	8.68	9.24	9.90	10.04	9.98	9.98	9.95	9.95	9.93	7.59	9.59	1.53
SE Coastal Plains	3.40E+07	7.65	7.69	7.64	2.78	2.64	2.59	2.60	2.64	2.66	2.66	6.42	7.80	8.73
Mediterranean CA	1.64E+07	7.36	7.38	7.38	5.29	4.50	4.44	4.14	4.13	4.13	3.99	7.40	7.43	10.25
TX/LA Coastal Plain	7.36E+06	7.32	7.36	7.35	3.00	3.03	2.97	2.95	3.00	3.04	3.03	6.33	9.49	5.23
Marine West Coast	3.64E+07	6.18	6.19	6.19	3.35	3.06	2.99	2.97	2.99	3.02	3.05	5.86	6.14	63.33
Temperate Prairies	5.22E+07	6.16	6.17	6.18	6.01	6.58	6.55	6.54	6.53	6.54	6.55	5.61	6.15	2.37
Western Cordillera	8.22E+07	6.04	6.04	6.03	4.95	4.61	4.58	4.57	4.57	4.58	4.60	5.93	5.93	22.70
Semiarid Plain	5.31E+06	3.22	3.20	3.20	0.61	0.65	0.65	0.64	0.65	0.65	0.65	2.75	3.03	0.32
South Central Prairies	9.97E+07	3.21	3.19	3.16	3.32	3.35	3.31	3.29	3.26	3.26	3.28	2.73	3.08	0.88
Upper Gila Mtns	1.09E+07	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.21	0.22	0.22	0.22	0.21	0.18	0.18	0.97	0.97	11.24
West-Central Prairies	5.91E+07	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.59	0.57	0.57	0.57	0.57	0.57	0.57	0.79	0.80	2.43

Western Sierra Madres	4.31E+0 6	0.70	0.70	0.70	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.70	0.70	12.97
Cold Deserts	1.01E+0 8	0.65	0.65	0.65	0.58	0.56	0.55	0.55	0.55	0.54	0.55	0.65	0.65	12.45
Warm Deserts	4.08E+0 7	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.02	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.14	0.14	36.62
Everglades	2.20E+0 6	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.37	0.36	0.36	0.36	0.36	0.36	0.00	0.00	38.06

163

164 Predictions of deciduous forest cover depended heavily on the scenario employed. The
165 “economic growth scenario” resulted in higher rates of forest loss due to urban increase,
166 agricultural expansion, and higher demand for forest products. Most ecoregions remain in
167 decline by 2050 with the exception of deserts, Mediterranean California and Western Sierra
168 Madre Piedmont. For the top leaf-peeping ecoregions, predicted percent change in forest cover is
169 nearly equivalent to declines from 1985-2016 (Figure 1b). Under the “sustainability scenario,”
170 more than half of the ecoregions would have increasing forest cover by 2050. Generally, highest
171 percent increases would occur in ecoregions with relatively low forest cover (logarithmic
172 relationship, $r^2 = 0.12$).

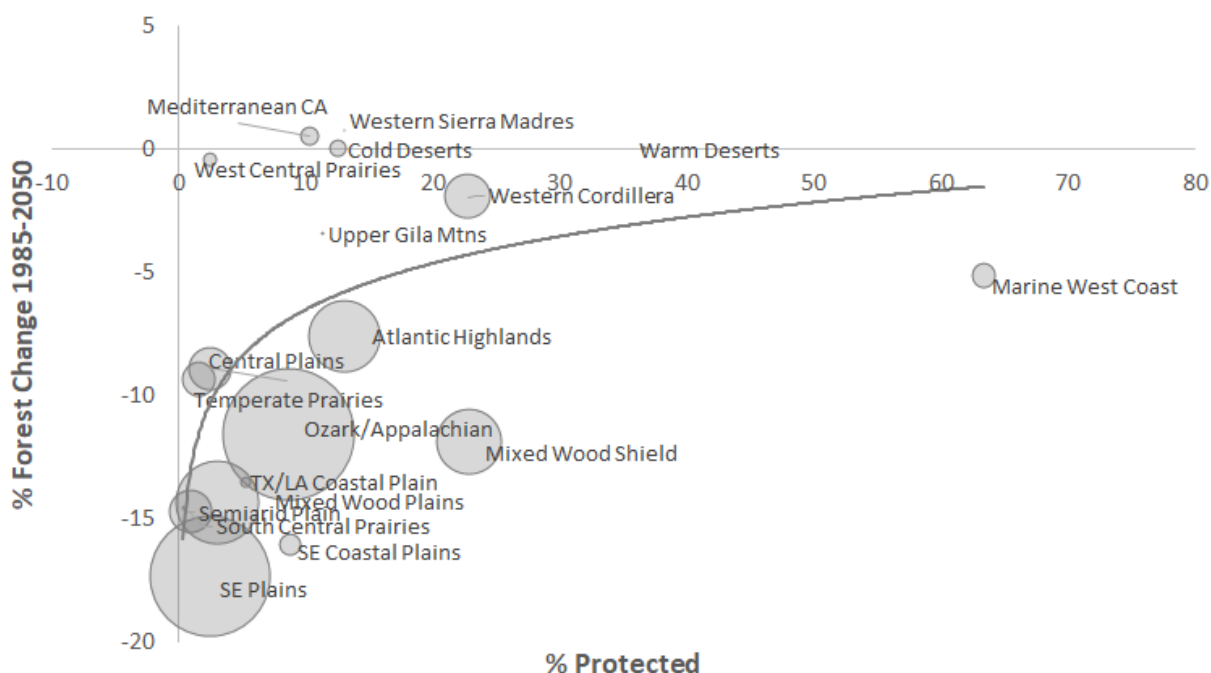


173

174 **Fig. 1** Ecoregions of the contiguous United State with deciduous/mixed forest cover (pink) and disturbed forest (red)
175 from a) 1985-2016 and b) models projecting forest cover in 2050. Numbers indicate rankings of ecoregions by
176 proportion of forest cover in 2016. Blue areas represent protected areas managed consistently with biodiversity
177 conservation (USGS PADUS GAP code 1 or 2).

178 Ecoregions for which deciduous forests make up at least a quarter of the land cover have
179 anywhere between 2.5% and 22.8% protected areas coverage. Declines in forest cover between
180 1985 and 2050 (economic-growth scenario) exhibited a logarithmic relationship with protected

181 areas coverage across ecoregions, with ecoregions undergoing greater proportional losses having
182 greater forest area and being more often underrepresented in the protected areas network (Figure
183 2; $r^2 = 0.35$, $p = 0.03$). Under the “sustainability scenario,” ecoregions with higher forest cover,
184 but low representation in the protected areas network (i.e., mixed wood plains and southeast
185 plains) will see relatively higher gains in deciduous forest.



186
187 **Fig. 2** Percent change in deciduous/mixed forest cover in an ecoregion from 1985 to projections for 2050 as a
188 function of forested area and the percent of the ecoregion that is protected as of 2018 (USGS PADUS GAP code 1
189 or 2; $y = 0.14(\text{protected}) - 2.9E-11(\text{forest}) - 8.01$, $r^2 = 0.35$, $p = 0.03$).

190

191 5 Conclusions

192 Forests are an essential component of the natural environment that offer profound
193 aesthetic and spiritual benefits to humanity. As such, forests offer a unique and powerful way to
194 connect people with environmental issues like the biodiversity and climate crises (Ives et al.,
195 2018). Loss of forests, either in large tracts or piecemeal, results in a degradation of these
196 benefits and decreases opportunities for quality experiences in nature (Nisbet et al., 2008; Soga
197 and Gaston, 2016; Zylstra et al., 2014). Here we documented extensive temperate forest loss

198 through the context of fall color change. These losses may be changing how people experience
199 nature, such as through the awe inspired by leaf peeping.

200 Cumulatively, we found that just under 55 million acres of deciduous or mixed forest
201 were disturbed between 1985 and 2016. All ecoregions with deciduous forests incurred losses,
202 but some were more dramatic than others. As expected, the extent of loss was related to the
203 proportion of the ecoregion that is managed as multi-use or is lacking conservation mandates.
204 Underrepresentation in the U.S. protected areas network means that temperate forests are
205 susceptible to continued fragmentation and modification. Under worst-case forecasting
206 scenarios, losses are predicted to continue. However, environmentally focused scenarios suggest
207 there is still opportunity to reverse deciduous forest loss in some ecoregions. Increasing public
208 exposure to temperate forests may help ensure conservation of more natural areas and preserve
209 the quantity and quality of autumn forest viewing.

210 The top ecoregions for autumn aesthetics are experiencing relatively higher forest losses
211 and are also relatively under-protected. Collectively, ecoregions with greater than a quarter of
212 their area covered by deciduous/mixed forest saw a 16.5% decline in forest area. For these
213 ecoregions, 93% of their lands are currently unprotected suggesting they may face further
214 disturbance or fragmentation. The top ecoregions are also concentrated east of the Mississippi
215 River, where there is less public land and more human disturbance, elevating the importance of
216 restoration efforts (Jenkins et al., 2015; Rosa and Malcom, 2020). Spatial incongruities in
217 protected areas and forested ecoregions also impact other ecosystem values. For example,
218 previous research indicates that the siting for current protected areas is often discordant with
219 diversity-rich or carbon-rich areas of the country (Jenkins et al., 2015; Rosa and Malcom, 2020).
220 This means the remaining natural habitats in these areas are significantly under-protected;
221 elevating their protections could contribute to both climate mitigation and biodiversity
222 conservation. In particular, states across the Southeast harbor high levels of biodiversity and
223 very few protected areas.

224 Additionally, trends show that ecoregions with lower forest cover generally experienced
225 greater rates of decline in the past two decades; this suggests that the few cultural and habitat
226 resources that deciduous forests provide in these areas are dwindling relatively fast. In the United
227 States, conversion of privately owned rural lands into low-density residential development (i.e.,
228 exurban development) has increased five- to seven-fold between 1950 and 2000 and is the fastest

229 growing type of land use (Suarez-Rubio et al., 2013). Exurban development is prominent in
230 forested ecoregions with dispersed, isolated housing units embedded within a forest matrix. At a
231 more local scale, topography will likely remain a significant constraining factor in development,
232 allowing some areas to persist in forest cover while agricultural, residential and urban uses are
233 concentrated in specific portions of the landscape (Wear and Bolstad, 1998). However, land use
234 may intensify without associated changes in land cover if development occurs under the forest
235 canopy: in some cases, forest cover is increasing (rather than declining) with an increase in
236 human population density and development. This suggests that estimates of forest cover and
237 ecosystem impacts derived from satellite imagery are conservative and presents limitations to
238 continued tracking and prediction of future trends in forest disturbance.

239 Projected land use patterns suggest spatial variability in continued anthropogenic
240 landscape modifications. Some ecoregions, mostly prairies and plains, may continue to see forest
241 losses regardless of scenario. But for some, like the mixed wood plains (32.5% deciduous/mixed
242 forest cover), which covers regions of the northeastern coast and upper Midwest, human
243 behaviors could mean the difference between continued forest losses or reversal to gains. Models
244 under the sustainability scenario suggest there is still time to reverse declining trends in
245 deciduous forest loss; 21.5% increase in forest cover is projected for the top five forested
246 ecoregions, collectively. However, even if forest loss is projected to slow or reverse, this may not
247 directly equate to impacts to cultural ecosystem values because of lag times in forest responses to
248 stress (Alexander et al., 2018). Additionally, these are net changes and do not capture spatial
249 changes at a local level where the loss and gain of forest may be disjunct, ultimately resulting in
250 more cumulative forest area, but also more fragmented forest patches. Ecoregions that lack
251 protections will continue to experience greater forest disturbances, which is consistent with
252 global analyses (d'Annunzio et al., 2015). These disturbances (e.g., exurban developments) are
253 often close to protected areas and natural amenities raising concern about their ecological
254 consequences, this is one of many stressors that deciduous forests will continue to face.

255 Centuries of exploitation demonstrate the resilience of temperate forests, but how much
256 disturbance can be tolerated and what it may mean for forest health and fall colors is still under
257 investigation. Currently, the majority of science on autumn colors focuses on the variation of
258 color pigments and senescence timing with nutrient availability, gene expression, herbivory, and
259 climatic factors. Additionally, there are studies on the impacts of fragmentation and degradation

260 on other forest values such as habitat, but any connections to be made between these stressors
261 and autumn aesthetic will be inferential at best given the current lack of science focused on direct
262 relationships. Understanding the indirect impacts of exurban development and forest
263 fragmentation on fall colors could be one way to generally quantify impacts to cultural
264 ecosystem values without the extra complication of estimating monetary values. For example,
265 under future climate change projections, greater summer heat-stress will cause abbreviated leaf
266 coloration seasons for most tree species (Xie et al., 2018). However, temperature discrepancies
267 which would typically be exacerbated by fragmentation may be dampened by the obscured edges
268 between exurban and forest land covers, highlighting the importance of local and
269 landscape-scale features on microclimate heterogeneity (Arroyo-Rodriguez et al., 2017; Latimer
270 and Zuckerberg, 2016). In addition to landscape conversion, forests are experiencing increasing
271 frequency, extent, and severity of natural disturbances, anthropogenic climate change, and a
272 burgeoning global human population that imposes escalating demands on forests. However, the
273 current body of literature fails to present a strong understanding of their synergistic impacts. For
274 example, stressed trees may senesce earlier than others, but research also suggests that
275 climate warming can delay timing (Faticov et al., 2019; Schaberg et al., 2003). Research
276 demonstrates increased vulnerability of temperate forests to disease and invasion during periods
277 of stress, but impacts to autumn aesthetics are unknown. More research is needed to determine
278 how forest loss and fragmentation relate to spatiotemporal changes in autumn color vibrancy and
279 to the quality of human-nature connections.

280 The large difference in forest loss estimates in the predictions scenarios emphasizes the
281 importance of human approaches to economic growth and sustainability in securing
282 environmental stability. Scenic aesthetic is the most direct and immediate aspect via which
283 people perceive and begin to value landscapes (Gobster et al., 2007; Sargolini, 2013). Visually
284 appealing and healthy ecological landscapes evoke positive emotions and promote the desire to
285 protect such landscapes (Gobster et al., 2007; Lee, 2017). Growing opportunities for U.S.
286 conservation could work to forge deeper connections between humans and nature and motivate
287 the public to take protective actions against detrimental environmental changes. In response to
288 current global biodiversity and climate crises, science-driven guidance to protect 30% of global
289 lands and seas by 2030 have made its way into US federal and state policy proposals. These
290 proposals call for achieving more equitable access to public land, nature and a healthy

291 environment for all communities. Given this framework, the potential benefits of protecting
292 deciduous forests is manifold. In addition to preserving the visual aesthetics and spiritual
293 connections that people make during autumn senescence, conserving temperate forests also
294 means protecting many of the U.S.'s biodiversity hotspots and areas of high carbon potential.
295 Additionally, forest conservation ensures more ecosystems will be more resilient to climate
296 stresses (Xu et al., 2019). Therefore, encouraging the public to experience temperate forest
297 autumn foliage may in turn have broad reaching conservation implications for the future.

298

299 **Acknowledgments, Samples, and Data**

300 We thank T. Niederman for her thoughtful review of this manuscript. We also thank USGS for
301 making PADUS, MRLC for making NLCD, and T. Sohl et al. for making their datasets available
302 to streamline general analyses. The authors received no additional financial support for the
303 research, authorship and/or publication of this article. The authors declare that the research was
304 conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as
305 a potential conflict of interest. Analyses reported in this article can be reproduced using publicly
306 available data. Final outputs are available on OSF at <https://osf.io/bqn7k/>.

307

308

309 **References**

310 Alexander, J.M., Chalmandrier, L., Lenoir, J., et al. (2018) Lags in the response of mountain
311 plant communities to climate change. *Global Change Biology* 24: 563–579.

312 <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.13976>

313 Archetti, M., Richardson, A.D., O'Keefe, J., & Delpierre, N. (2013) Predicting climate change
314 impacts on the amount and duration of autumn colors in a New England forest. *PLoS ONE* 8:
315 e57373. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0057373>

316 Arroyo-Rodriguez, V., Saldana-Vazquez, R.A., Fahrig, L., & Santos, B.A. (2017) Does forest
317 fragmentation cause an increase in forest temperature? *Ecological Research* 32: 81–88.

318 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11284-016-1411-6>

319

- 320 Brandt, P., Abson, D.J., DellaSala, D.A., Feller, R., & von Wehrden, H. (2014)
321 Multifunctionality and biodiversity: Ecosystem services in temperate rainforests of the
322 Pacific Northwest, USA. *Biological Conservation* 169: 362–371.
323 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2013.12.003>
324
- 325 De Carvalho, R.M., & Szlafsztein, C.F. (2019) Urban vegetation loss and ecosystem services:
326 The influence on climate regulation and noise and air pollution. *Environmental Pollution*
327 245: 844–852. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2018.10.114>
328
- 329 Clancy, N.G., Draper, J.P., Wolf, J.M., Abdulwahab, U.A., Pendleton, M.C., Brothers, S.,
330 Brahney, J., Weathered, J., Hammill, E., & Atwood, T.B. (2020) Protecting endangered
331 species in the USA requires both public and private land conservation. *Science Reports* 10:
332 11925. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-68780-y>
333
- 334 Colvin, S.A.R., Sullivan, S.M.P., Shirey, P.D., et al. (2019) Headwater streams and wetlands are
335 critical for sustaining fish, fisheries, and ecosystem services. *Fisheries* 44: 73–91.
336 <https://doi.org/10.1002/fsh.10229>
337
- 338 Cooper, N., Brady, E., Steen, H., & Bryce, R. (2016) Aesthetic and spiritual values of
339 ecosystems: recognising the ontological and axiological plurality of cultural ecosystem
340 ‘services’. *Ecosystem Services* 21: 218–229. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoser.2016.07.014>
341
- 342 d’Annunzio, R., Sandker, M., Finegold, Y., & Min, Z. (2015) Projecting global forest area
343 towards 2030. *Forest Ecology and Management* 352: 124–133.
344 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2015.03.014>
345
- 346 DellaSala, D.A., Karr, J.R., & Olson, D.M. (2011) Roadless areas and clean water. *Journal of*
347 *Soil and Water Conservation* 66: 78A–84A. <https://doi.org/10.2489/jswc.66.3.78A>
348
- 349 Dinerstein, E., Joshi, A.R., Vynne, C., et al. (2020) A safety net to reverse biodiversity loss and
350 stabilize Earth’s climate. *Science Advances* 6: eabb2824. DOI: 10.1126/sciadv.abb2824

- 351
- 352 Dinerstein, E., Vynne, C., Sala, E., et al. (2019) A global deal for nature: guiding principles,
353 milestones, and targets. *Science Advances* 5: eaaw2869. DOI: 10.1126/sciadv.aaw2869
354
- 355 Environmental Protection Agency (2006) Ecoregions of North America.
356 <https://www.epa.gov/eco-research/ecoregions-north-america>. Accessed February 25, 2021.
357
- 358 Eroglu, E., & Demir, Z. (2016) Phenological and visual evaluations of some roadside deciduous
359 trees in urban area. *Biological Diversity and Conservation* 9: 143–153.
360
- 361 Faticov, M., Ekholm, A., Roslin, T., & Tack, A.J.M. (2019) Climate and host genotype jointly
362 shape tree phenology, disease levels and insect attacks. *Oikos* 129: 391–401.
363 <https://doi.org/10.1111/oik.06707>
364
- 365 Finzi, A.C., Giasson, M.A., Plotkin, A.A., et al. (2020) Carbon budget of the Harvard Forest
366 long-term ecological research site: pattern, process, and response to global change.
367 *Ecological Monographs* 90: e01423. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecm.1423>
368
- 369 Gobster, P.H., Nassauer, J.I., & Daniel, T.C. (2007) The shared landscape: what does aesthetics
370 have to do with ecology? *Landscape Ecology* 22: 959–972. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s10980-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10980-007-9110-x)
371 [007-9110-x](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10980-007-9110-x)
372
- 373 Gómez-Baggethun, E., Tudor, M., & Doroftei, M. (2019) Changes in ecosystem services from
374 wetland loss and restoration: An ecosystem assessment of the Danube Delta (1960–2010).
375 *Ecosystem Services* 39: 100965. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoser.2019.100965>
376
- 377 Gunn, J.S., Ducey, M.J., & Belair, E. (2019) Evaluating degradation in a North American
378 temperate forest. *Forest Ecology and Management* 43: 415–426.
379 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2018.09.046>
380

- 381 Haddad, N.M., Brudvig, L.A., Clobert, J., et al. (2015) Habitat fragmentation and its lasting
382 impact on Earth's ecosystems. *Science Advances* 1: e1500052. DOI: 10.1126/sciadv.1500052
383
- 384 Hofmeister, J., Hošek, J., Brabec, M., et al. (2019) Shared affinity of various forest-dwelling taxa
385 point to the continuity of temperate forests. *Ecological Indicators* 101: 904–912.
386
- 387 Homer, C., Deqitz, J., Jin, S., et al. (2020) Conterminous United States land cover change
388 patterns 2001-2016 from the 2015 National Land Cover Database. *ISPRS Journal of*
389 *Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing* 162: 184–199.
390 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isprsjprs.2020.02.019>
391
- 392 Ives, C.D., Abson, D.J., von Wehrden, H., Dorninger, C., Klaniecki, K., & Fischer, J. (2018)
393 Reconnecting with nature for sustainability. *Sustainable Science* 13: 1389–1397.
394 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11625-018-0542-9>
395
- 396 Keith, H., Mackey, B.G., & Lindenmayer, D.B. (2009) Re-evaluation of forest biomass carbon
397 stocks and lessons from the world's most carbon-dense forests. *Proceedings of the National*
398 *Academy of Sciences* 106: 11635–11640. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0901970106>
399
- 400 Latimer, C.E., & Zuckerberg, B. (2016) Forest fragmentation alters winter microclimates and
401 microrefugia in human-modified landscapes. *Ecography* 40: 158–170. doi:
402 10.1111/ecog.02551
403
- 404 Lee, L.H. (2017) Perspectives on landscape aesthetics for the ecological conservation of
405 wetlands. *Wetlands* 37: 381–389. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13157-016-0873-1>
406
- 407 Di Minin, E., Soutullo, A., Bartesaghi, L., Rios, M., Szephegyi, M.N., & Moilanen, A. (2017)
408 Integrating biodiversity, ecosystem services and socio-economic data to identify priority
409 areas and landowners for conservation actions at the national scale. *Biological Conservation*
410 206: 56–64. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2016.11.037>
411

- 412 Moomaw, W.R., Masino, S.A., & Faison, E.K. (2019) Intact forests in the United States:
413 proforestation mitigates climate change and serves the greatest good. *Frontiers in Forest*
414 *Global Change* 2. <https://doi.org/10.3389/ffgc.2019.00027>
415
- 416 Nisbet, E.K., Zelenski, J.M., & Murphy, S.A. (2009) The nature relatedness scale: linking
417 individuals' connection with nature to environmental concern and behavior. *Environment*
418 *and Behavior* 41: 715–740. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013916508318748>
419
- 420 Pan, Y., Birdsey, R.A., Fang, J., et al. (2011) A large and persistent carbon sink in the world's
421 forests. *Science* 333: 988–993. DOI: 10.1126/science.1201609
422
- 423 Peng, J., Wang, A., Luo, L., Liu, Y., Li, H., Hu, Y., Meersmans, J., & Wu, J. (2019) Spatial
424 identification of conservation priority areas for urban ecological land: An approach based on
425 water ecosystem services. *Land Degradation and Development* 30: 683–694.
426 <https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.3257>
427
- 428 Pennington, D.N., Hansel, J.R., & Gorchoy, D.L. (2010) Urbanization and riparian forest woody
429 communities: Diversity, composition, and structure within a metropolitan landscape.
430 *Biological Conservation* 143: 182–194. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2009.10.002>
431
- 432 Rosa, L.D., & Malcom, J. (2020) Getting to 30x30: guidelines for decision-
433 makers. [https://defenders.org/sites/default/files/2020-07/getting-to-30x30-guidelines-for-](https://defenders.org/sites/default/files/2020-07/getting-to-30x30-guidelines-for-decision-makers.pdf)
434 [decision-makers.pdf](https://defenders.org/sites/default/files/2020-07/getting-to-30x30-guidelines-for-decision-makers.pdf) Accessed February 25, 2021.
435
- 436 Sandifer, P.A., Sutton-Grier, A.E., & Ward, B.P. (2015) Exploring connections among nature,
437 biodiversity, ecosystem services, and human health and well-being: opportunities to enhance
438 health and biodiversity conservation. *Ecosystem Services* 12: 1–15.
439 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoser.2014.12.007>
440
- 441 Sargolini, M. (2013) Ecology vs aesthetics. In: Sargolini M (ed) *Urban Landscapes*. Springer,
442 Milan, pp 5–10

- 443 Schaberg, P.G., van den Berg, A.K., Murakami, P.F., Shane, J.B., & Donnelly, J.R. (2003)
444 Factors influencing red expression in the autumn foliage of sugar maple trees. *Tree*
445 *Physiology* 23: 325–333. DOI: [10.1093/treephys/23.5.325](https://doi.org/10.1093/treephys/23.5.325)
- 446 Scolozzi, R., Schirpke, U., Morri, E., D'Amato, D., & Santolini, R. (2014) Ecosystem services-
447 based SWOT analysis of protected areas for conservation strategies. *Journal of*
448 *Environmental Management* 146: 543–551. DOI: [10.1016/j.jenvman.2014.05.040](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2014.05.040)
- 449 Soga, M., & Gaston, K.J. (2016) Extinction of experience: the loss of human — nature
450 interactions. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment* 14: 94–101.
451 <https://doi.org/10.1002/fee.1225>
452
- 453 Soga, M., & Gaston, K.J. (2018) Shifting baseline syndrome: causes, consequences, and
454 implications. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment* 16: 222–230.
455 <https://doi.org/10.1002/fee.1794>
456
- 457 Sohl, T.L., Reker, R., Bouchard, M., Sayler, K., Dornbierer, J., Wika, S., Quenzer, R., & Friesz,
458 A. (2018) Modeled historical land use and land cover for the conterminous United States:
459 1938-1992: U.S. Geological Survey data release, <https://doi.org/10.5066/F7KK99RR>
460 Accessed February 25, 2021.
461
- 462 Sohl, T.L., Sayler, K.L., Bouchard, M.A., et al. (2014) Spatially explicit modeling of 1992-2100
463 land cover and forest stand age for the conterminous United States. *Ecological Applications*
464 24: 1015–1036. <https://doi.org/10.1890/13-1245.1>
- 465 Suarez-Rubio, M., Wilson, S., Leimgruber, P., & Lookingbill, T. (2013) Threshold responses of
466 forest birds to landscape changes around exurban development. *PLoS ONE* 8: e67593.
467 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0067593>
- 468 Sweeney, B.W., Bott, T.L., Jackson, J.K., Kaplan, L.A., Newbold, J.D., Standley, L.J., Hession,
469 W.C., & Horwitz, R.J. (2004) Riparian deforestation, stream narrowing, and loss of stream

470 ecosystem services. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 101: 14132–14137.

471 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0405895101>

472

473 Thompson, K., & Jones, A. (1999) Human population density and prediction of local plant

474 extinction in Britain. *Conservation Biology* 13: 185–189. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1523->

475 [1739.1999.97353.x](https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1523-1739.1999.97353.x)

476

477 Thurner, M., Beer, C., Santoro, M., et al. (2014) Carbon stock and density of boreal and

478 temperate forests. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 23: 297–310.

479 <https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.12125>

480 Wang, X., Geng, L., Zhou, K., Ye, L., Ma, Y., & Zhang, S. (2016) Mindful learning can promote

481 connectedness to nature: Implicit and explicit evidence. *Consciousness and Cognition* 44: 1–

482 7. DOI: [10.1016/j.concog.2016.06.006](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.concog.2016.06.006)

483 Wear, D.N., & Bolstad, P. (1998) Land-use changes in Southern Appalachian landscapes: spatial

484 analysis and forecast evaluation. *Ecosystems* 1: 575–594.

485 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s100219900052>

486

487 Xu, B., Arain, M.A., Black, T.A., Law, B.E., Pastorello, G.Z., & Chu, H. (2019) Seasonal

488 variability of forest sensitivity to heat and drought stresses: a synthesis based on carbon

489 fluxes from North American forest ecosystems. *Global Change Ecology* 26: 901–918.

490 <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14843>

491

492 Yang, L., Jin, S., Danielson, P., et al. (2018) A new generation of the United States National

493 Land Cover Database: requirements, research priorities, design, and implementation

494 strategies. *ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing* 146: 108–123.

495 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isprsjprs.2018.09.006>

496

497 Zie, Y., Wang, X., Wilson, A.M., & Silander, J.A. (2018) Predicting autumn phenology: how

498 deciduous tree species respond to weather stressors. *Agriculture and Forest Metrology* 250:

499 127–137. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2017.12.259>

- 500 Zhang, X.J., Chen, J., Li, Q.Y., Liu, J.C., & Tao, J.P. (2019) Color quantification and evaluation
501 of landscape aesthetic quality for autumn landscape forest based on visual characteristics in
502 subalpine region of western Sichuan, China. *Journal of Applied Ecology* 31: 45–54.
503 DOI: [10.13287/j.1001-9332.202001.016](https://doi.org/10.13287/j.1001-9332.202001.016)
- 504 Zhang, Z., Qie, G., Wang, C., Jiang, S., Li, X., & Li, M. (2017) Relationships between forest
505 color characteristics and scenic beauty: case study analyzing deciduous forests at sloped
506 positions in Jiozhai Valley China. *Forests* 8: 63. <https://doi.org/10.3390/f8030063>
507
- 508 Zylstra, M.J., Knight, A.T., Esler, K.J., & Le Grange, L.L.L. (2014) Connectedness as a core
509 conservation concern: An interdisciplinary review of theory and a call for practice. *Springer*
510 *Science Reviews* 2: 119–143. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40362-014-0021-3>