1 The minimum land area requiring conservation attention to

2 safeguard biodiversity

3

4 Abbreviated Title: Land area needed to conserve biodiversity

5 Authors

- James R. Allan^{*1,2}, Hugh P. Possingham^{2,3}, Scott C. Atkinson^{2,4}, Anthony Waldron⁵,
- 7 Moreno Di Marco^{6,7}, Vanessa M. Adams⁸, Stuart H. M. Butchart^{9,10}, W. Daniel
- 8 Kissling¹, Thomas Worsdell¹¹, Gwili Gibbon¹², Kundan Kumar¹¹, Piyush Mehta¹³,
- 9 Martine Maron^{2,7}, Brooke A. Williams^{2,7}, Kendall R. Jones¹⁴, Brendan A. Wintle¹⁵,
- 10 April E. Reside^{2,7}, James E.M. Watson^{2,7}

11 Affiliations

- ¹Institute for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Dynamics (IBED), University of Amsterdam, P.O. Box 94240,
- 13 1090 GE, Amsterdam, The Netherlands
- 14 ²Centre for Biodiversity and Conservation Science, The University of Queensland, St Lucia, QLD
- 15 4072, Australia
- 16 ³The Nature Conservancy, VA 22203-1606, USA
- 17 ⁴United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), New York, New York, USA
- 18 ⁵Cambridge Conservation Initiative, David Attenborough Building, Department of Zoology, Cambridge
- 19 University, Cambridge CB2 3QZ, UK
- ⁶Department of Biology and Biotechnologies, Sapienza University of Rome, viale dell'Università 32, I 00185 Rome, Italy
- ⁷School of Earth and Environmental Sciences, The University of Queensland, St Lucia QLD 4072,
 Australia
- ⁸School of Technology, Environments & Design, University of Tasmania, Hobart, TAS 7001, Australia
- ⁹BirdLife International, David Attenborough Building, Pembroke Street, Cambridge CB2 3QZ, UK
- ¹⁰Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, Downing Street, Cambridge CB2 3EJ, UK
- 27 ¹¹Rights and Resources Initiative, Washington, D. C., USA
- ¹²Durrell Institute of Conservation and Ecology, School of Anthropology and Conservation, University
- 29 of Kent, Canterbury, CT2 7NR, UK
- 30 ¹³University of Delaware, Newark, DE 19716, USA
- ¹⁴Wildlife Conservation Society, Global Conservation Program, 2300 Southern Boulevard, Bronx, NY
 10460-1068, USA
- 33 ¹⁵School of BioSciences, University of Melbourne, Vic., Australia

- 35 Keywords Protected Areas, Conservation Planning, Restoration, Global
- 36 Conservation Priorities, Strategic Plan for Biodiversity, Convention on Biological
- 37 Diversity, Conservation Priorities, Key Biodiversity Areas, Wilderness, Ecologically
- 38 Intact.
- ³⁹ *Correspondence to: James R. Allan. E-mail: <u>James.allan@uqconnect.edu.au</u>

40 More ambitious conservation efforts are needed to stop the global biodiversity crisis. Here, we estimate the minimum land area to secure important sites for 41 terrestrial fauna, ecologically intact areas, and the optimal locations for 42 representation of species ranges and ecoregions. We discover that at least 64 43 million km² (44% of terrestrial area) requires conservation attention. Over 1.8 44 billion people live on these lands so responses that promote agency, self-45 46 determination, equity, and sustainable management for safeguarding biodiversity are essential. Spatially explicit land-use scenarios suggest that 1.3 47 million km² of land requiring conservation could be lost to intensive human 48 land-uses by 2030, which requires immediate attention. However, there is a 49 seven-fold difference between the amount of habitat converted under 50 51 optimistic and pessimistic scenarios, highlighting an opportunity to avert this crisis. Appropriate targets in the post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework to 52 ensure conservation of the identified land would contribute substantially to 53 safeguarding biodiversity. 54

Securing places with high conservation value is crucial for safeguarding biodiversity¹ 55 56 and is central to the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)'s 2050 vision of sustaining a healthy planet and delivering benefits for all people². CBD Aichi Target 57 11 aimed to conserve at least 17% of land area by 2020³, but this is widely seen as 58 inadequate for halting biodiversity declines and averting the crisis⁴. Post-2020 target 59 discussions are now well underway⁵, and there is a broad consensus that the 60 61 amount of land and sea managed for biodiversity conservation must increase⁶. Recent calls are for targets to conserve anywhere from 26 to 60% of land and ocean 62 area by 2030 through site-scale responses such as protected areas and 'other 63 effective area-based conservation measures' (OECMs)⁷⁻¹². There is also increasing 64 recognition that site-scale responses must be supplemented by broader landscape-65 scale actions aimed at addressing habitat degradation and loss¹³. While global 66 conservation targets are set by political intergovernmental negotiation, scientific input 67 is necessary to identify the location and amount of land requiring conservation 68 attention, and to inform potential strategies. 69

70 Several scientific approaches exist that help provide evidence to inform global 71 conservation efforts, but when used in isolation, they can provide conflicting advice. 72 In particular, there are efficiency-based planning approaches that focus on maximising the number of species or ecosystems captured within a complementary 73 74 set of conservation areas, weighting species and ecosystems by their endemicity, extinction risk, or other criteria^{14,15}. There are also threshold-based approaches such 75 as the Key Biodiversity Area (KBA) initiative¹⁶, which identifies sites of significance 76 77 for the global persistence of biodiversity using criteria relating to the occurrence of threatened or geographically restricted species or ecosystems, intact ecological 78 communities, or important biological processes (e.g. breeding aggregations)¹⁶. There 79 are also proactive approaches that aim to conserve the most ecologically intact 80 places before they are degraded¹⁷. These intact areas are increasingly recognised 81 as essential for sustaining long-term ecological and evolutionary processes¹⁸, and 82 long-term species persistence¹⁹, especially under climate change²⁰. Examples 83 include boreal forests which support many wide-ranging species^{21,22}, and the 84 Amazon rainforest which needs to be maintained in its entirety, not just for its most 85 species-rich areas but also to sustain continent-scale hydrological patterns that 86 underpin its ecosystems²³. 87

88 Although these approaches are complementary and provide essential evidence to set and meet biodiversity conservation targets, the adoption of any one 89 90 of them as a unique guide for decision-making is likely to omit potentially critical elements of the CBD vision²⁴. For example, a species-based focus on identifying 91 areas in a way that most efficiently captures the most species would fail to recognise 92 93 the critical need to maintain large intact ecosystems globally for biodiversity persistence¹⁹. Equally, a focus on proactively conserving ecologically intact 94 ecosystems would fail to achieve adequate conservation of some threatened species 95 or ecosystems²⁵. Put simply, all approaches will lead to partly overlapping but often 96 distinct science-based suggestions for area-based conservation²⁶. We suggest that 97 combining these approaches into a unified global framework that seeks to 98 99 comprehensively conserve species, ecosystems, and the remaining intact 100 ecosystems offers a better scientific basis for achieving the CBD vision.

Here, we identify the minimum land area requiring conservation attention 101 globally. We start from the basis of existing protected areas²⁷, KBAs²⁸, and 102 ecologically intact areas²⁹, and then efficiently add a fraction of the ranges of 35,561 103 104 species of mammals, birds, amphibians, reptiles, freshwater crabs, shrimp, and crayfish scaled to the sizes of their ranges^{14,15,30}, while also capturing samples (17%) 105 of area, following CBD Aichi Target 11) of all terrestrial ecoregions³¹. We used these 106 107 taxonomic groups because they are those most comprehensively assessed and 108 mapped by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN), noting that 109 the inclusion of plants and other groups would likely increase the area identified 110 above our minimum.

111 We do not suggest the land we map should be designated as protected areas 112 that preclude other land management strategies. Rather, we argue that it should be 113 managed through a range of strategies for species and ecosystem conservation. We 114 define the term 'conservation attention' to capture this broad range of strategies which lead to positive biodiversity outcomes. For example, extensive areas that are 115 116 remote and unlikely to be converted for human uses in the near-term could be 117 safeguarded through effective sustainable land-use policies, while other areas could 118 be conserved through self-determined local governance regimes led by Indigenous 119 Peoples and Local Communities. We believe the appropriate governance and 120 management regimes for any area depends in part on the likelihood of its habitat being converted or degraded by intensive human uses³²⁻³⁴ as well as the land tenure
regimes and other socio-political factors and as such, the response for conserving
the areas we identify will be context specific.

124 To highlight places that need the most immediate attention, we further calculate which parts of the land needing conservation are most likely to suffer 125 126 habitat conversion in the near future. We do this by using harmonised projections of future land-use change by 2030 and 2050³⁵. To determine best- to worst-case 127 scenarios, we evaluated projections under three different shared socioeconomic 128 pathways (SSPs)³⁶ linked to representative concentration pathways (RCPs)³⁷: an 129 optimistic scenario where the world gradually moves towards a more sustainable 130 131 future, SSP1 (RCP2.6; IMAGE model), a middle-of-the-road scenario without any 132 extreme changes towards or away from sustainability (SSP2; MESSAGE-GLOBIOM model), and a pessimistic scenario where regional rivalries dominate international 133 relations and land-use change is poorly regulated, SSP3 (RCP7.0; AIM model). 134 135 Given uncertainty in which pathway humanity is following we also created an "ensemble" land-use projection where we calculated the average loss across all 136 137 three SSPs.

We also estimate and map the number of people living on the land area 138 requiring conservation attention, including within current protected areas, using the 139 LandScan 2018 global distribution³⁸. We performed this calculation in view of the 140 potential impact of conservation on people living in such areas given the history of 141 human rights abuses³⁹, displacement⁴⁰, and militarised forms of violence⁴¹ 142 associated with some actions done in the name of conservation⁴². These rights-143 abuses are linked to a pervasive lack of tenure-rights recognition and culturally 144 appropriate rights frameworks for conservation⁴³⁻⁴⁵. Communities already effectively 145 146 conserve large tracts of land, and supporting their actions will thus be a key strategy to continue safeguarding biodiversity⁴⁶. 147

148 The minimum land area requiring conservation attention

We estimate that, in total, the minimum land area requiring conservation attention is
64.7 million km² (44% of Earth's terrestrial area; Figure 1). This consists of 35.1
million km² of ecologically intact areas, 20.5 million km² of existing protected areas,
11.6 million km² of KBAs, and 12.4 million km² (8.4% of terrestrial area) of additional

Iand (i.e. outside protected areas, KBAs and ecologically intact areas) needed to promote species persistence based on conserving minimum proportions of their ranges (Figure 2). Moreover, protected areas, KBAs and ecologically intact areas only have a three way overlap on 1.8 million km², and consensus area (overlap) only captures 5% of ecologically intact areas, 9% of protected area extent, and 16% of KBA extent, emphasising the importance of considering the various approaches in a unified framework as we do here.

There is considerable geographic variation in the amount of land requiring 160 161 conservation. We find that at least 64% of land in North America needs to be 162 conserved, primarily due to the ecologically intact areas of Canada and the USA and 163 extensive additional land areas in Central America. In contrast, at least 33.1% of 164 Europe's land area requires conservation. The proportion of land requiring conservation also varies considerably among nations (Figure 3), with notably high 165 values in Canada (84%) largely due to its extensive ecologically intact areas, Costa 166 Rica (86%), Suriname (84%), and Ecuador (81%), due to their high numbers of 167 endemic species and, in Ecuador's case, the inclusion of a large overlap with the 168 169 remaining Amazon forest (Extended Data Table 1). We also find that a larger percentage of land in developed economies (55% in total) requires effective 170 conservation compared to emerging economies (48%) or developing economies 171 (Extended Table 172 (30%)Data 2).

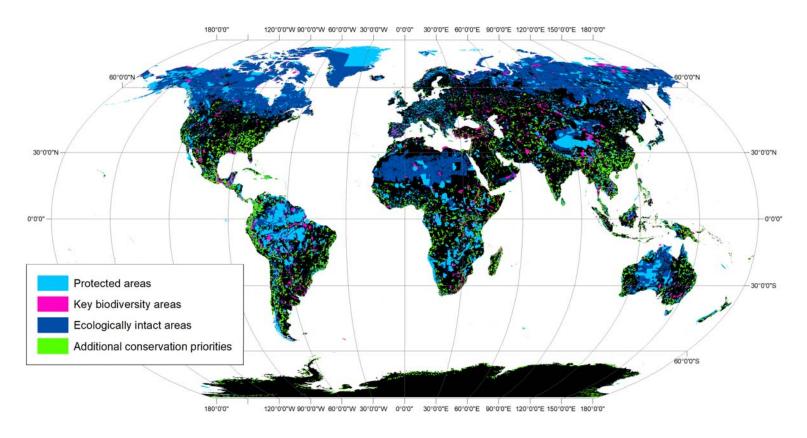
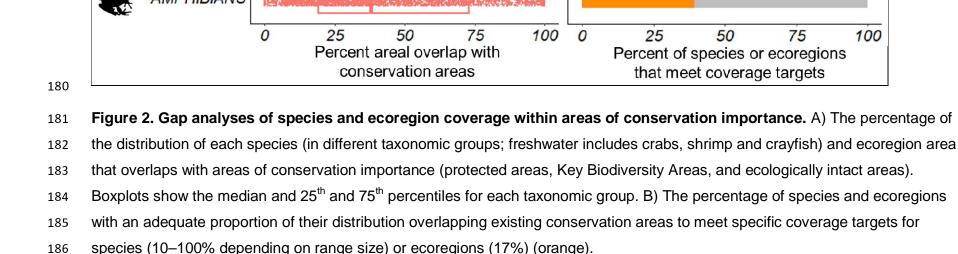
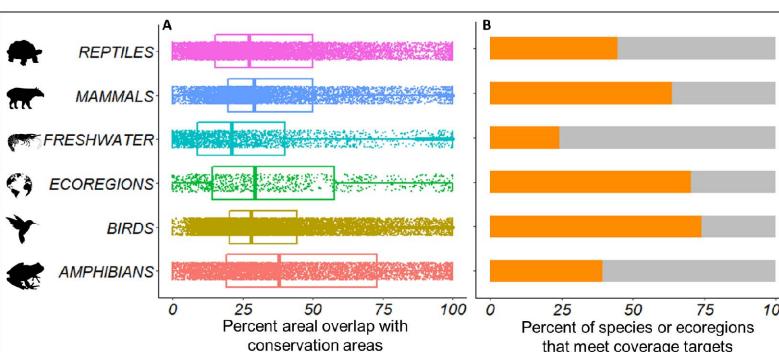


Figure 1. The minimum land area for conserving terrestrial biodiversity. The components include protected areas (light blue), Key Biodiversity Areas (purple) and ecologically intact areas (dark blue). Where they overlap, protected areas are shown above Key Biodiversity Areas, which are shown above ecologically intact areas. New conservation priorities are in green. The Venn diagram shows the proportional overlap between features.







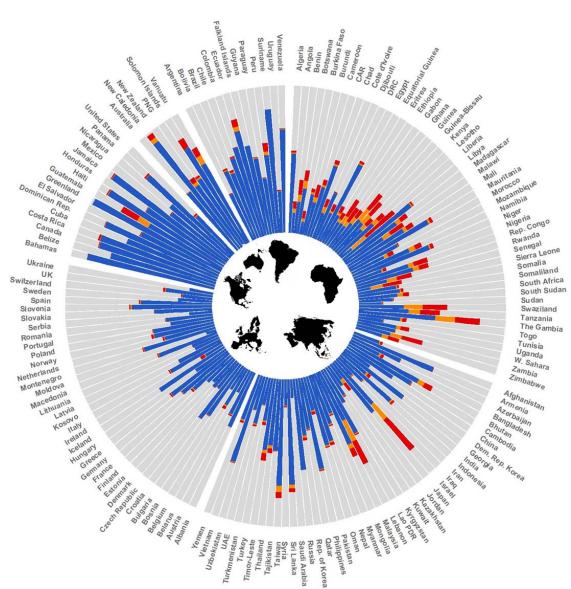
187 Future risk of land conversion in areas requiring conservation attention

We found that 44.9 million km^2 (70.1%) of the land area requiring conservation 188 attention is currently intact, implying a significant restoration requirement. Our results 189 190 further suggest that under the pessimistic scenario SSP3, 1.3 million km^2 (2.8%) of 191 the total intact land area requiring conservation will undergo habitat conversion to intensive human land-uses by 2030, increasing to 2.2 million km² (4.9%) by 2050. 192 Projected habitat conversion varies across continents and countries (Figure 4). 193 194 Africa is projected to have the highest proportion of intact conservation land converted by 2030 (>800,506 km², 9% of Africa's intact habitat), increasing to 1.4 195 million km² (15.9%) by 2050 (Extended Data Tables 3-4). The lowest risk of 196 conversion is in Oceania and North America. Substantially larger proportions of 197 198 intact land requiring conservation in developing economies are projected to have their habitat converted by 2030 (7.1%), compared with emerging economies (1.7%) 199 200 or developed economies (1.1%). By 2050, developing economies are projected to 201 have 12.7% of their intact habitat requiring conservation converted under SSP3 202 (Extended Data Table 5), notably a lot of this loss is driven by demand in developed economies⁴⁷. KBA's are projected to have the largest proportion of habitat converted 203 204 compared with protected areas and ecologically intact areas (Extended Data Table 205 6).

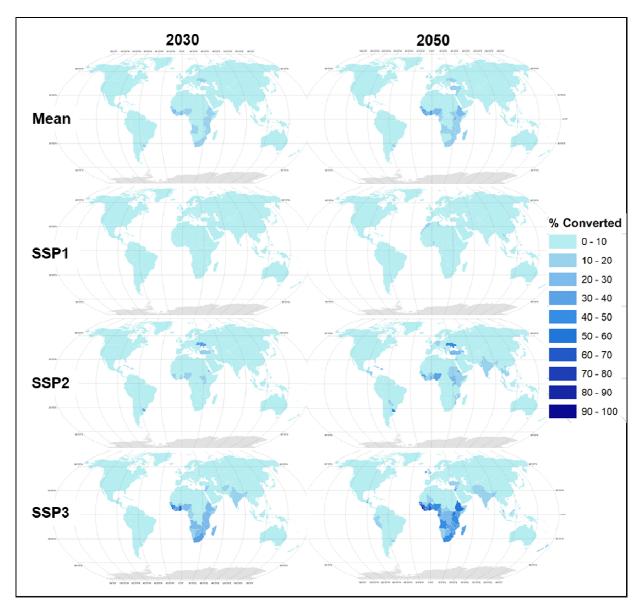
206 Based on SSP1, representing a world acting sustainably, we estimate that 136,380 km² (0.3%) of the intact land requiring effective conservation may suffer 207 natural habitat conversion by 2030, increasing to 320,558 km² (0.7%) by 2050. 208 209 Based on SSP2, representing a middle-of-the-road scenario, the values become 841,438 km² (1.9%) by 2030 and 1.5 million km² (3.3%) by 2050. This highlights how 210 211 our results are sensitive to future societal development pathways, but even under the 212 most optimistic scenario (SSP1), large extents of important conservation land are at 213 risk of having natural habitat converted to more intensive human land-uses. 214 However, the seven-fold difference between the amount of habitat converted under 215 SSP1 vs. SSP3 shows there is a large window of opportunity for humanity to avert 216 the biodiversity crisis.

There is inherent uncertainty in future land-use projections and on which SSP society is tracking most closely. To minimise the effect of this uncertainty, we also calculated the average intact habitat loss across the three SSP scenarios. In this

- ²²⁰ 'ensemble' scenario, we expect 740,599 km² (1.7%) of intact habitat in land requiring
- conservation to be converted by 2030, increasing to 1.3 million km² by 2050 (2.9%).







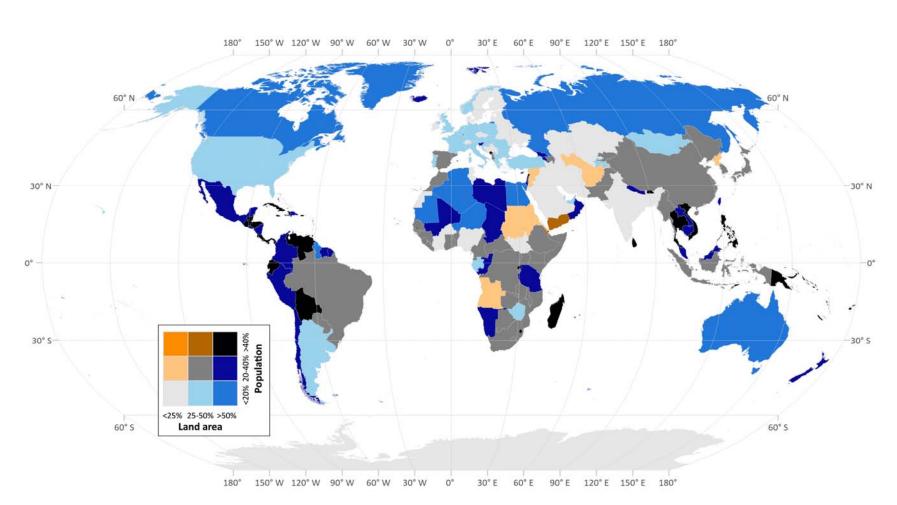
231

Figure 4. Future habitat conversion on land requiring conservation attention. The proportion of natural habitat on land requiring conservation that is projected to be converted to human uses by 2030 and 2050 based on Shared Socioeconomic Pathway 1 (SSP1; an optimistic scenario), Shared Socioeconomic Pathway 2 (SSP2; a middle-of-the-road scenario), Shared Socioeconomic Pathway 3 (SSP3; a pessimistic scenario), and the mean loss across the three scenarios (Mean). The data on future land use does not extend to Antarctica.

Human population in areas requiring conservation

240 We found that 1.87 billion people live in the land area requiring conservation 241 attention, which is approximately one-quarter of Earth's human population (24%) (Extended Data Figure 1). Africa, Asia and Central America have particularly large 242 243 proportions of their human populations living on important conservation land 244 (Extended Data Figure 2). The majority of people living in the area requiring 245 conservation are in emerging and developing economies, which also have much 246 higher proportions of their populations (often above 20%) living in areas requiring 247 conservation compared to developed economies (Figure 5). This raises social justice questions regarding scaling up conservation strategies to meet biodiversity goals. 248

249



- Figure 5. Bivariate map showing the proportion of each country's human population living in areas requiring conservation attention,
- and the proportion of each country's land area requiring conservation attention.

254 Implications for global policy

255 Our analyses represent a comprehensive scientific estimate of the minimum land 256 area requiring conservation attention to safeguard biodiversity. Given our inclusion of 257 ecologically intact areas, updated maps of KBAs, and additional locations to conserve species, our estimate that 44% of land requires conservation attention is, 258 259 unsurprisingly, larger than those from previous analyses that have focussed primarily 260 on species and/or ecosystems, used earlier KBA datasets and/or didn't include ecologically intact areas (e.g. 27.9% Butchart, et al. ¹⁵, 20.2% Venter, et al. ¹⁴, and 261 30% Larsen, et al.⁴). Conservation attention to the areas we identify will be 262 263 important for achieving a suite of targets in the post-2020 Global Biodiversity 264 Framework under the Convention for Biological Diversity. These include increasing 265 the area, connectivity and integrity of natural ecosystems, and supporting healthy 266 and resilient populations of all species while reducing the number of species that are 267 threatened and maintaining genetic diversity (the focus of draft Goal A); retaining 268 ecologically intact areas (draft Target 1); conserving areas of particular importance 269 for biodiversity (draft Target 2); and enabling recovery and conservation of wild 270 species of fauna and flora (draft Target 3) 48 .

271 The figure of 44% of Earth's land requiring conservation attention is large; however. 70% of this area is still relatively intact, implying these places may not 272 need the larger investments required to restore landscapes⁴⁹. In contrast, 1.3 million 273 274 km² of land needing conservation, mostly in developing and emerging economies, is 275 at risk of habitat conversion to intensive human land-uses and consequent 276 biodiversity loss so is an immediate conservation priority. Appropriately worded 277 targets in the post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework to safeguard these at-risk 278 places would make a significant contribution towards addressing the biodiversity 279 crisis, as long as it is accompanied with parallel efforts ensuring that habitat conversion is not displaced into other important conservation areas⁵⁰. 280

Our finding that 1.8 billion people live in areas requiring conservation attention raises important questions about implementation. Historically, some conservation actions have adversely affected and continue to negatively affect Indigenous Peoples, Afro-descendants, and local communities³⁹⁻⁴¹. The high number of people living in areas requiring conservation attention implies that practices such as 286 displacing or relocating people will not only be unjust, but also not possible. 287 Evidence shows that in many cases Indigenous Peoples and local communities have been effective stewards of biodiversity worldwide⁵¹. An ethical strategy that may 288 effectively safeguard large extents of land is a rights-based approach to 289 conservation^{45,52}. The central pillars of this are i) recognising that through their 290 291 customary practices Indigenous Peoples, Afro-descendants, and local communities 292 have already demonstrated both leadership and agency in biodiversity conservation across the world⁵³; ii) recognising their rights to land, benefit sharing, and institutions, 293 294 and supporting efforts to strengthen these rights, so they can continue to effectively 295 conserve their own lands; and iii) making Indigenous Peoples, Afro-descendants, 296 and local communities partners in setting the global conservation agendas through 297 the CBD and promoted as leaders in achieving its targets. Large areas requiring 298 conservation attention are claimed by Indigenous Peoples, Afro-descendants, and 299 local communities as their territories or lands so supporting them to continue 300 conserving these places may be the most effective and efficient way to meet many 301 biodiversity targets, while governments may need to work with them to ensure these 302 lands are not converted to other less biodiversity friendly land-uses.

303 A number of additional actions are required to achieve the scale of conservation necessary to deliver positive biodiversity outcomes. On all land 304 305 requiring conservation attention the expansion of roads and developments such as 306 agriculture, forestry, and mining, needs to follow development frameworks such as 307 the mitigation hierarchy to ensure 'no net loss' of biodiversity and natural 308 ecosystems⁵⁴. As such, mechanisms that direct developments away from important 309 conservation areas are also crucial, including strengthening investment and 310 performance standards for financial organisations such as the World Bank and other development investors⁵⁵, and tightening existing industry certification standards. Our 311 312 threat analysis only looked at future land conversion; however, a range of other 313 threats such as overhunting, climate change, and fragmentation must also be 314 considered and mitigated in areas requiring conservation attention.

A critical implementation challenge is that the proportion of land that different countries would need to conserve is highly inequitable. This variation is largely a reflection of the distribution of biodiversity, where tropical countries with high species richness and many restricted range endemics require large areas of land to be 319 conserved because there are few other places to conserve those species. The 320 variation is also due to the distribution of ecologically intact areas, whereby five 321 countries, Canada, Russia, USA, Brazil and Australia contain 75% of Earth's ecologically intact areas¹⁷, and so will each need to conserve large areas. In 322 323 responding to this inequity, the conservation community can apply the concept of 324 common but differentiated responsibilities that is foundational to all global environmental agendas including the CBD⁵⁶ and United Nations Framework 325 Convention on Climate Change⁵⁷. Since the burden of conservation is 326 disproportionately distributed, cost-sharing and fiscal transfer mechanisms are likely 327 necessary to ensure that all national participation is equitable and fair, and the 328 opportunity costs of foregone developments are considered^{58,59}. This is important 329 330 since the majority of land requiring conservation attention that is at risk of immediate 331 habitat conversion is found in developing economies. Notably, many environmental 332 impacts in emerging and developing economies are driven by consumption in developed economies⁴⁷, who have a moral obligation to reduce these demands or 333 334 fund the necessary local conservation efforts.

335 Our estimate of the land area requiring effective biodiversity conservation 336 must be considered the bare minimum needed, and will almost certainly expand as more data on the distributions of underrepresented species such as plants, 337 invertebrates, and freshwater species becomes available for future analyses⁶⁰. New 338 339 KBAs are continuing to be identified for under-represented taxonomic groups, 340 threatened or geographically-restricted ecosystems, and highly intact and 341 irreplaceable ecosystems. Species and ecosystems are also shifting under climate change, and as a result, are leading to changes in the location of land requiring 342 effective conservation⁶¹, which we could not account for. Future analyses could use 343 344 our framework to identify the efficacy of the areas we identified in conserving shifting 345 species ranges under climate change. We also note that post-2020 biodiversity 346 targets may imply higher levels of ecoregional representation than the 17% we used 347 (see Methods). Many of the species representation targets (n = 5182, 14.6%) could 348 not be met within existing habitat, emphasising the importance of restoration over the 349 coming decades. Given the prioritisation approach used, every loss of a place that 350 was identified makes the total area requiring conservation attention grow, since to meet species and ecoregion coverage targets, the algorithm will be forced to find a
 less-optimal configuration of land areas.

353 For the above reasons, our results do not imply that the land our analysis did not identify, (i.e. the other 56% of Earth's land surface), is unimportant for 354 355 conservation and global sustainable development goals. Much of this area will be 356 important for sustaining the provision of ecosystem services to people, from climate 357 regulation to provisioning of food, materials, drinking water, and crop pollination, in 358 addition to supporting other elements of biodiversity not captured in our priority areas⁶. Furthermore, many human activities can impact the entire Earth system 359 360 regardless of where they occur (e.g. fossil fuel use, pesticide use, and pollution), so 361 management efforts focussed on limiting the ultimate drivers of biodiversity loss are essential⁶². Finally, we have not considered how constraining developments to 362 locations outside of the land area needing conservation impacts solutions for 363 364 meeting human needs, such as increasing energy and food demands. Although 365 social objectives that benefit humanity are clearly important, they cannot all be achieved sustainably without limiting the degradation of the ecosystems supporting 366 367 all life'. Integrated assessments of how we can achieve multiple social objectives 368 while effectively conserving biodiversity at a global scale are important avenues for future research⁶³. 369

370 The world's nations are discussing post-2020 biodiversity conservation targets 371 within the CBD and wider Sustainable Development Goals international agenda. 372 These targets will define the global conservation agenda for at least the next decade, so it is crucial that they are adequate to achieve biodiversity outcomes¹⁰. Our 373 374 analyses show that a minimum of 44% of land requires conservation attention, 375 through both site- and landscape-scale approaches, which should serve as an 376 ecological foundation for negotiations. Governments failed to meet the CBDs previous Aichi Targets suggesting a need to reimagine how conservation is done⁶⁴. 377 378 Our finding that over 1.8 billion people live on lands requiring conservation attention further supports the need for dramatic shifts in conservation strategies. The 379 380 implementation of conservation actions must put the rights of Indigenous Peoples 381 and local communities, socio-environmental justice and human rights frameworks at 382 their centre. As such, conservation scientists have an opportunity to scale up their 383 role as capacity builders for the communities that request their expertise. If CBD

signatory nations are serious about safeguarding the biodiversity and ecosystem services that underpin all life on earth^{1,63}, then they need to recognise that conservation action must be immediately and substantially scaled-up, in extent, intensity, sophistication and effectiveness.

388 Methods

389 Mapping important conservation areas

390 We obtained spatial data on the location of protected areas from the February 2020 version of the World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA)²⁷. This edition does not 391 392 contain data on protected areas in China, which have largely been removed from the 393 publicly accessible WDPA in more recent versions. We therefore used the January 394 2017 version of the WDPA for China, since this is the most recent version with 395 China's full complement of protected areas. In total, we had location data for 253,797 396 protected areas. We handled the WDPA data according to best-practice guidelines 397 available that are on the protected planet website 398 (https://www.protectedplanet.net/c/calculating-protected-areacoverage) and included 399 regionally, nationally and internationally designated protected areas. We included all 400 protected areas in the database regardless of their IUCN management category 401 because these categories are not globally consistent. The WDPA dataset contains 402 protected areas represented as point data. In these cases, we converted the points 403 to polygons by setting a geodesic buffer around the point based on the areal 404 attributes of that point. We excluded points with no areal attributes. We also 405 excluded all marine protected areas, 'proposed' protected areas, and UNESCO Man 406 and Biosphere Reserves since their core conservation areas often overlap with other 407 protected areas and their buffer zones' primary goals are not biodiversity 408 conservation. Finally, we flattened (i.e. dissolved) the protected area data to remove 409 any overlapping protected areas.

We obtained data on the boundaries of 14,192 KBAs from the September 410 2019 version of the World Database of Key Biodiversity Areas²⁸. KBAs documented 411 with point data were treated as outlined above for protected areas. The KBA dataset 412 includes sites identified under previously established criteria such as Important Bird 413 and Biodiversity Areas (IBAs)⁶⁵ and Alliance for Zero Extinction sites (AZEs)⁶⁶ (as 414 415 the KBA Standard explicitly state that these sites are encompassed by KBAs), and the KBA criteria builds closely on these previous criteria¹⁶. Although the KBA criteria 416 417 have been applied most comprehensively to birds, in the September 2019 version of 418 the KBA dataset, 53% of species that trigger the criteria are non-avian, and 35% of 419 sites are triggered by non-avian species. These proportions are increasing as the standard is applied more widely to non-birds, and many bird-triggered KBAs are likely to prove important for other species⁶⁵. We obtained global data on the extent of ecologically intact areas from Allan, et al. ²⁹, who utilised maps of 'pressure-free lands'. Previous analyses have referred to these pressure free lands as wilderness areas, but here we avoid the term, preferring 'ecologically intact' since the word wilderness is sometimes associated with a legacy of violence that has been perpetrated to promote it and is therefore offensive to some people.

We merged protected areas, KBAs and ecologically intact areas together, removing overlaps (i.e. again flattened the merged datasets) to create a global template of "existing important conservation areas".

430 **Distribution and representation of biodiversity**

431 We obtained data on the distributions of terrestrial mammals (n = 5,617), amphibians (n = 6,577), freshwater crabs (n = 1,285), shrimp (n = 692) and crayfish (n = 496)432 from the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species⁶⁷. Bird distribution data (n = 10,926) 433 were sourced from BirdLife International and Handbook of the Birds of the World⁶⁸. 434 and reptile data (n = 9,964) from Roll, et al. ⁶⁹. These represent the most 435 436 comprehensive spatial databases for these taxonomic groups. We excluded species 437 that are extinct, possibly extinct, or if their presence is uncertain. We did not account 438 for sub-species. The freshwater species ranges are mapped at the watershed level 439 which is generally coarser than the 30×30 km resolution of our spatial analysis. Since freshwater species are likely to only inhabit a small area within the 440 441 watersheds, there is a chance of commission errors, where a species is falsely 442 identified as present. In regions with larger hydro sheds the probability of 443 commission errors increases. There is also a higher likelihood of commission errors in less surveyed regions such as the global tropics, where there are also many 444 narrow-ranged species. This is important information for interpreting the results, and 445 446 highlights the need for downscaled national level analyses using best available local data. We also included data on the distribution of 845 terrestrial ecoregions³¹, which 447 448 are bio-geographically distinct spatial units at the global scale.

We set representation targets for the percentage of each species' distribution that should be effectively conserved, following previous studies (Rodrigues, et al. ³⁰, Venter, et al. ¹⁴, and Butchart, et al. ¹⁵). Targets were set as a function of a species' 452 range size, and were log-linearly scaled between 10% for species with distributions >250,000 km², to 100% for species with ranges <1,000 km². We limited the target for 453 species with large ranges to 1 million km² maximum¹⁵. We acknowledge that other 454 target setting approaches exist, for example based on minimising species extinction 455 risk⁷⁰. However, these are not as widely adopted as the approach we followed here. 456 457 We also acknowledge that scaling targets for species based on range size may not 458 always be sufficient to guarantee persistence for all species. That said, it is the most 459 widely used "best practice" target setting approach. For each ecoregion, we followed Venter et al.¹⁴ by setting a coverage target of 17%, in line with Aichi Target 11 of the 460 Strategic Plan for Biodiversity³. We acknowledge that Aichi Target 11 expired in 461 462 2020 but the nature of the post-2020 targets is still under discussion, and that the 463 17% value is arbitrary and was determined through negotiation. We carried out a 464 "gap analysis" by calculating the proportion of each species' range that currently 465 overlaps with the important conservation areas, and comparing this with each species' coverage target to identify under-represented species and the extent of 466 additional range each requires. 467

468 **Priority areas for the expansion of conservation efforts**

469 We identify spatial priorities for meeting species conservation targets, whilst 470 accounting for current protection within existing important conservation areas, and minimizing the cost (the area of a planning unit) of the areas selected⁷¹. We solve 471 this using the mathematical optimisation 'minimum set problem' (also known as the 472 473 'reserve selection problem'), an integer linear programming problem, using Gurobi (version 5.6.2) following the methods developed by Beyer, et al. ⁷². Integer linear 474 475 programming is an effective, exact method for solving optimisation problems, which minimises or maximises an objective function subject to constraints conditional on 476 the decision variables being integers⁷². Specifically, we solved the reserve selection 477 478 problem as follows:

min.
$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} c_{i} x_{i}$$
subject to
$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} r_{ik} x_{i} \ge T_{k, k} \in K$$

$$x_{i} \in \{0, 1\}, i \in N$$

479

where x_i is a binary decision variable determining whether planning unit *i* is selected (1) or not (0), and c_i represents the cost of planning unit *i* or, in this case the objective is to select the smallest number of planning units, so $c_i = 1$ for every *i*. The parameter r_{ik} is the contribution of planning unit *i* to feature *k* and T_k is the minimum target (described above) to be achieved for feature *k* among all planning units. We applied a threshold specifying that solutions must be within 0.5% of the optimum⁷², which returns a near-optimal solution.

To run the analysis, we first created a 30×30 km (900 km²) global planning 487 488 unit grid. This resolution limits the risk of commission errors when working with the 489 available species distribution data (e.g. assuming a species is present when it is not)^{15,73}. Planning units were clipped to terrestrial areas and inland lakes and 490 491 waterways so that freshwater taxa could be included. We included Antarctica and 492 Greenland. We calculated the area of each conservation feature (e.g. species 493 distribution and ecoregion distribution) within each planning unit, including the area 494 within existing important conservation areas. All geospatial data processing was carried out in the Mollweide equal-area projection using a spatially enabled 495 496 PostgreSQL database (using PostGIS version 2.2) or in ESRI ArcGIS version 10.5.1.

We used the area of a planning unit as a surrogate for the cost of 497 498 conservation in that planning unit. Seeking to minimise area is advantageous 499 because it supports our aim of identifying the minimum area requiring conservation attention globally. There is also evidence that area is a good proxy for cost, reducing 500 uncertainties created in the absence of fine scale and accurate cost data¹⁴. Other 501 widely used cost metrics such as the human footprint^{75,76} and agricultural 502 opportunity⁷⁷ costs do not extend to Antarctica or remote sub-Antarctic islands 503 504 further supporting our choice of area as the most suitable cost metric.

To explore how sensitive our results are to the choice of cost metric we ran the prioritisation analyses again using two other cost layers: the sum human footprint and the agricultural opportunity cost of a planning unit. The human footprint is a map of cumulative human pressure on the natural environment for the year 2009 at a 1km² resolution globally^{75,76}. The agricultural opportunity data is a global map of the gross economic rents of agricultural lands⁷⁷. We assumed that conservation will be cheaper and more feasible in areas with less human influence and lower agricultural
opportunity. We excluded Antarctica and sub-Antarctic islands from this sensitivity
analysis. We found that the priorities identified using different cost layers overlap by
58% on average (ranging from 36–75% overlap) (Extended Data Table 7; Extended
Data Figure 3). This demonstrates that our results are somewhat sensitive to cost,
but are also driven to large extent by the distribution of biodiversity features.

517 We accounted for current land-use in our analyses by excluding places 518 classified as 'built areas', assuming they are unavailable for conservation. By built 519 areas we mean cities and major urban centres that contain no original habitat. Data 520 on the extent of built areas was obtained from the European Space Agency (ESA) 521 Climate Change Initiative (CCI) who have developed globally consistent landcover 522 maps at a 300 m resolution for the year 2015, classing the world into 22 land use categories⁷⁸. We extracted land use category 190 which represents urban areas and 523 resampled the data to a 1 km² resolution were a pixel was considered a built area if 524 >50% of its area was urban. In the results presented in the main manuscript we 525 526 assumed all other land-uses including current agricultural areas are available for 527 conservation since they can be restored, and our aim is to identify the 'minimum area requiring conservation attention' even if that means including places requiring 528 restoration. Some KBAs contain urban areas because the management units they 529 530 represent contain such urban areas, or, more rarely, they support significant 531 populations of species of conservation concern in these locations. We did not account for this in the analyses, so the urban extent of these KBAs would have been 532 533 considered unavailable for meeting species representation targets. This means that 534 the 44% of Earth's surface that we calculated is a slight underestimate of the true 535 extent requiring conservation attention.

536 To assess the sensitivity of our results to current land use we ran the 537 prioritisation again excluding both built areas and current agricultural extent, 538 assuming this land is unavailable for conservation (Extended Data Figure 3). Data on agricultural extent was also obtained from the ESA CCI⁷⁸. We extracted land-use 539 categories 10; rainfed cropland, 11; herbaceous cover, 12; tree or shrub cover, 20; 540 irrigated or post flooding cropland, and 30; mosaic cropland, converted this into a 541 binary agriculture is present/absent layer and resampled to 1 km² resolution where a 542 543 pixel was considered agriculture if >50% of its area was covered by agricultural landuse. We found that when we exclude both built areas and agricultural land (and used
planning unit area as a cost) the land area requiring conservation is 695,633 km²
lower than when agriculture was included. However, this is because 5,182 species
(14.6%) cannot meet their representation targets when the model cannot select
areas under current agriculture, resulting in an insufficient conservation plan.

549 By running the prioritisation with different cost layers and land-use constraints, 550 we identify different spatial solutions that meet the species distribution coverage 551 targets. This demonstrates that there is considerable spatial freedom in identifying 552 priority conservation areas. The fact that not all targets could be met when 553 agricultural and urban land was locked out also demonstrates the bounds of this 554 freedom. Finding multiple near optimal spatial solutions to conservation planning 555 problems is one of the most important functionalities of conservation planning tools since it allows decision makers to assess multiple options for achieving their goals. 556

It is possible to create conservation plans where each country must conserve the same proportion of their area⁷⁹; however, this leads to costly inefficient plans⁵⁹, and would be inconsistent with our aim of identifying the minimum most important area requiring conservation. Therefore, we ran the prioritisation at the global scale.

561 **Future threats to conservation areas**

562 To map the risk of habitat conversion occurring in the conservation areas identified, we utilised spatially explicit data on future land-use scenarios from the newly 563 released Land Use Harmonisation Dataset v2 (http://luh.umd.edu/)³⁵. To determine 564 565 optimistic, middle-of-the-road, and pessimistic scenarios, we evaluated projections under three different Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs)³⁶, which are linked to 566 Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs)³⁷: specifically, SSP1 (RCP2.6; 567 IMAGE), an optimistic scenario where the world gradually moves towards a more 568 sustainable future, SSP2 (MESSAGE-GLOBIOM) a middle-of-the-road scenario 569 570 without any extreme changes towards or away from sustainability, and SSP3 (RCP7.0; AIM), a pessimistic scenario where land use change is poorly regulated. 571

572 The harmonised land-use data contains 12 state layers (with the unit being 573 the fraction of a grid cell in that state) for the years 2015 (current baseline), 2030 and 574 2050. We considered four of the state layers as natural land-cover classes, 575 including; primary forested land, primary non-forested land, potentially forested 576 secondary land, and potentially non-forested secondary land (Extended Data Figure 577 4). Using these four classes, we calculated the proportion of natural land projected to 578 be lost (converted to human uses) by the years 2030 and 2050 in each 30 x 30 km 579 grid cell. From this we calculated the area of natural land projected to be lost within 580 each grid cell. We assume that once land is converted it remains converted. 581 Antarctica and remote islands were excluded from this part of the analyses because the land-use data does not extend to them. We also created an "ensemble" scenario, 582 583 where we calculated the average area of natural land projected to be converted in 584 each pixel across all three SSPs (Extended Data Figure 5).

585 Estimating the human population in areas requiring conservation

We used LandScan's global population distribution model for the year 2018³⁸ to 586 587 estimate the number of people living within areas requiring conservation. We expanded on methods used by Schleicher et al.⁸⁰, who used LandScan to measure 588 the populations living in the least populated ecoregions. Data were extracted to 589 estimate the area and number of people found within places requiring conservation. 590 591 These were then tabulated using the database of Global Administrative Areas 592 (GADM 2020) to provide measures for each territory. Population data were 593 calculated in raster format at a resolution of 30 by 30 arc seconds, approximately 1 594 km² (835m²). LandScan population data represents an ambient population (average 595 over 24 hours).

596 **References**

- 5971IPBES. Summary for policymakers of the global assessment report on biodiversity and598ecosystem services of the Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform and Biodiversity and599Ecosystem Services. (IPBES secretariat, Bonn, Germany, 2019).
- 6002CBD. Conference of the Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity: Long-term strategic601directions to the 2050 vision for biodiversity, approaches to living in harmony with nature
- and preparation for the post-2020 global biodiversity framework. *CBD/COP/14/9* (2018).
 CBD. Conference of the parties decision X/2 Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011 2020.
- 604 Convention on Biological Diversity. (<u>https://www.cbd.int/decision/cop/?id=12268</u>, 2011).
- Larsen, F. W., Turner, W. R. & Mittermeier, R. A. Will protection of 17% of land by 2020 be
 enough to safeguard biodiversity and critical ecosystem services? *Oryx* 49, 74-79,
 doi:10.1017/S0030605313001348 (2014).
- 6085CBD. Twenty-third meeting of the Subsidiary Body on Scientific, Technical and Technological609Advice. 25-29 November 2019. Montreal, Canada, <<u>https://www.cbd.int/meetings/SBSTTA-</u>61023> (2019).
- 6 Maron, M., Simmonds, J. S. & Watson, J. E. M. Bold nature retention targets are essential for
 612 the global environment agenda. *Nature Ecology & Evolution* 2, 1194-1195,
 613 doi:10.1038/s41559-018-0595-2 (2018).
- 614 7 Pimm, S. L., Jenkins, C. N. & Li, B. V. How to protect half of Earth to ensure it protects 615 sufficient biodiversity. *Science Advances* **4**, doi:10.1126/sciadv.aat2616 (2018).
- Baillie, J. & Zhang, Y.-P. Space for nature. Science **361**, 1051-1051,
- 617 doi:10.1126/science.aau1397 (2018).
- Dinerstein, E. *et al.* A Global Deal For Nature: Guiding principles, milestones, and targets. *Science Advances* 5, eaaw2869, doi:10.1126/sciadv.aaw2869 (2019).
- 62010Visconti, P. *et al.* Protected area targets post-2020. Science 364, 239-241,621doi:10.1126/science.aav6886 (2019).
- 62211Jones, K. R. *et al.* Area requirements to safeguard Earth's marine species. *bioRxiv*, 808790,623doi:10.1101/808790 (2019).
- 624
 12
 Sala, E. *et al.* Protecting the global ocean for biodiversity, food and climate. *Nature* **592**, 397

 625
 402, doi:10.1038/s41586-021-03371-z (2021).
- 62613Boyd, C. *et al.* Spatial scale and the conservation of threatened species. Conservation Letters6271, 37-43, doi:10.1111/j.1755-263X.2008.00002.x (2008).
- Venter, O. *et al.* Targeting Global Protected Area Expansion for Imperiled Biodiversity. *PLOS Biology* 12, e1001891, doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.1001891 (2014).
- Butchart, S. H. M. *et al.* Shortfalls and Solutions for Meeting National and Global
 Conservation Area Targets. *Conservation Letters* 8, 329-337, doi:10.1111/conl.12158 (2015).
 IUCN. A Global Standard for the Identification of Key Biodiversity Areas. (Gland, Switzerland:
- 633 IUCN, 2016).
- 634 17 Watson, J. E. M. *et al.* Protect the last of the wild. *Nature* **536**, 27 30 (2018).
- 63518Soule, M. E. et al. The role of connectivity in Australian conservation. Pacific Conservation636Biology 10, 266-279, doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1071/PC040266</u> (2004).
- bi Marco, M., Ferrier, S., Harwood, T. D., Hoskins, A. J. & Watson, J. E. M. Wilderness areas
 halve the extinction risk of terrestrial biodiversity. *Nature* 573, 582-585,
 doi:10.1038/s41586-019-1567-7 (2019).
- 64020Mantyka-Pringle, C. S. et al. Climate change modifies risk of global biodiversity loss due to641land-cover change. Biological Conservation 187, 103-111, doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2015.04.016642(2015).
- 64321Pan, Y. et al. A Large and Persistent Carbon Sink in the World's Forests. Science 333, 988-644993, doi:10.1126/science.1201609 (2011).

645	22	Lamb, C. T., Festa-Bianchet, M. & Boyce, M. S. Invest long term in Canada's wilderness.
646		<i>Science</i> 359 , 1002-1002, doi:10.1126/science.aat1104 (2018).
647	23	Sampaio, G. <i>et al.</i> Regional climate change over eastern Amazonia caused by pasture and
648		soybean cropland expansion. Geophysical Research Letters 34 , L17709,
649		doi:10.1029/2007gl030612 (2007).
650	24	Smith, R. J. et al. Synergies between the key biodiversity area and systematic conservation
651		planning approaches. <i>Conservation Letters</i> 12 , e12625, doi:doi:10.1111/conl.12625 (2019).
652	25	Watson, J. E. M. et al. Catastrophic declines in wilderness areas undermine global
653		environmental targets. <i>Current Biology</i> (2016).
654	26	Kullberg, P., Di Minin, E. & Moilanen, A. Using key biodiversity areas to guide effective
655		expansion of the global protected area network. Global Ecology and Conservation 20,
656		e00768, doi: <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gecco.2019.e00768</u> (2019).
657	27	IUCN and UNEP-WCMC. World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA),
658		< <u>www.protectedplanet.net</u> > (2020).
659	28	Birdlife International. World Database of Key Biodiversity Areas (KBAs). Developed by the
660		KBA Partnership., <www.keybiodiversityareas.org> (2017).</www.keybiodiversityareas.org>
661	29	Allan, J. R., Venter, O. & Watson, J. E. M. Temporally inter-comparable maps of terrestrial
662		wilderness and the Last of the Wild. Scientific Data 4, 170187, doi:10.1038/sdata.2017.187
663		(2017).
664	30	Rodrigues, A. S. L. <i>et al.</i> Effectiveness of the global protected area network in representing
665		species diversity. Nature 428 , 640-643,
666		doi:http://www.nature.com/nature/journal/v428/n6983/suppinfo/nature02422 S1.html
667		(2004).
668	31	Olson, D. N. <i>et al.</i> Terrestrial ecoregions of the world: a new map of life on Earth. <i>BioScience</i>
669		51 , 933 - 938 (2001).
670	32	Sacre, E., Bode, M., Weeks, R. & Pressey, R. L. The context dependence of frontier versus
671		wilderness conservation priorities. Conservation Letters 12, e12632, doi:10.1111/conl.12632
672		(2019).
673	33	Allan, J. R. <i>et al</i> . Hotspots of human impact on threatened terrestrial vertebrates. <i>PLOS</i>
674		<i>Biology</i> 17 , e3000158, doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.3000158 (2019).
675	34	Davis, K. F. et al. Tropical forest loss enhanced by large-scale land acquisitions. Nature
676		Geoscience 13, 482-488, doi:10.1038/s41561-020-0592-3 (2020).
677	35	Hurtt, G., Chini, L., Sahajpal, R. & Frolking, S. Harmonization of global land-use change and
678		management for the period 850-2100, < <u>http://luh.umd.edu/</u> > (2016).
679	36	O'Neill, B. C. <i>et al.</i> The roads ahead: Narratives for shared socioeconomic pathways
680		describing world futures in the 21st century. <i>Global Environmental Change</i> 42 , 169-180,
681		doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2015.01.004 (2017).
682	37	van Vuuren, D. P. et al. The representative concentration pathways: an overview. Climatic
683		Change 109 , 5, doi:10.1007/s10584-011-0148-z (2011).
684	38	Rose, A. N. (ed Oak Ridge National Laboratory SE) (Oak Ridge TN, 2019).
685	39	Brockington, D., Igoe, J. & Schmidt-Soltau, K. Conservation, Human Rights, and Poverty
686		Reduction. Conservation Biology 20, 250-252, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-
687		1739.2006.00335.x (2006).
688	40	Brockington, D. & Igoe, J. Eviction for Conservation: A Global Overview. Conservation and
689		Society 4 , 424-470 (2006).
690	41	Duffy, R. <i>et al.</i> Why we must question the militarisation of conservation. <i>Biological</i>
691		Conservation 232 , 66-73, doi: <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2019.01.013</u> (2019).
692	42	IPE. Embedding human rights in nature conservation: From intent to action. Report of the
693		Independent Panel of Experts of the Independent Review of allegations raised in the media
694		regarding human rights violations in the context of WWF's conservation work. (2020).
		_

695	43	RRI. Estimate of the area of land and territories of Indigenous Peoples, local communities,
696		and Afro-descendant Peoples where their rights have not been recognized. Rights and
697		Resources Initiative., (Washington D.C.

- 698 Rights and Resources Initiative., 2020).
- 699 44 RRI. The Opportunity Framework: Identifying Opportunities to Invest in Securing Collective
 700 Tenure Rights in the Forest Areas of Low and Lower Middle Income Countries., (Rights and
 701 Resources Initiative. Washington D.C., 2020).
- 70245Worsdell, T. *et al.* Rights-Based Conservation: The path to preserving Earth's biological and703cultural diversity? Rights and Resources Institute. (2020).
- 70446LBO. Forest Peoples Programme, International Indigenous Forum on Biodiversity, Indigenous705Women's Biodiversity Network, Centres of Distinction on Indigenous and Local Knowledge706and Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity. (2020)@Local Biodiversity Outlooks7072: The contributions of indigenous peoples and local communities to the implementation of708the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011–2020 and to renewing nature and cultures. A709complement to the fifth edition of Global Biodiversity Outlook. . (Moreton-in-Marsh.
- 710 England: Forest Peoples Programme., 2020).
- 71147Moran, D. & Kanemoto, K. Identifying species threat hotspots from global supply chains.712Nature Ecology & Evolution 1, 0023, doi:10.1038/s41559-016-0023
- 713 <u>http://www.nature.com/articles/s41559-016-0023#supplementary-information</u> (2017).
- 714 48 CBD. Zero Draft of the Post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework. (2020).
- Watson, J. E. M. *et al.* The exceptional value of intact forest ecosystems. *Nature Ecology & Evolution*, doi:10.1038/s41559-018-0490-x (2018).
- 71750Renwick, A. R., Bode, M. & Venter, O. Reserves in Context: Planning for Leakage from718Protected Areas. PLOS ONE 10, e0129441, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0129441 (2015).
- FILAC, F. a. Forest governance by indigenous and tribal peoples. An opportunity for climate
 action in Latin America and the Caribbean., (Latin America and the Caribbean, 2021).
- 72152Corson, C., Flores-Ganley, I., Worcester, J. & Rogers, S. From paper to practice? Assembling a722rights-based conservation approach. Journal of Political Ecology 27, 1128-1147 (2020).
- Tauli-Corpuz, V., Alcorn, J., Molnar, A., Healy, C. & Barrow, E. Cornered by PAs: Adopting
 rights-based approaches to enable cost-effective conservation and climate action. *World Development* 130, 104923, doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2020.104923</u> (2020).
- 72654Arlidge, W. N. S. et al. A Global Mitigation Hierarchy for Nature Conservation. BioScience 68,727336-347, doi:10.1093/biosci/biy029 (2018).
- 72855IFC. International Finance Corporation. Performance Standard 6. Biodiversity and729Sustainable Management of Living Natural Resources. (2012).
- 73056United Nations. Report of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development.731Rio Declaration on Environment and Development. A/CONF.151/26 Vol. I (1992).
- 732 57 United Nations. Paris Agreement (United Nations). December 2015., (2015).
- 73358Armstrong, C. Sharing conservation burdens fairly. Conservation Biology 33, 554-560,734doi:10.1111/cobi.13260 (2019).
- 73559Allan, J. R. et al. Navigating the complexities of coordinated conservation along the river736Nile. Science Advances 5, eaau7668, doi:10.1126/sciadv.aau7668 (2019).
- 73760Di Marco, M. et al. Projecting impacts of global climate and land-use scenarios on plant738biodiversity using compositional-turnover modelling. Global Change Biology 25, 2763-2778,739doi:10.1111/gcb.14663 (2019).
- 74061Ponce-Reyes, R. et al. Forecasting ecosystem responses to climate change across Africa's741Albertine Rift. Biological Conservation 209, 464-472,
- 742 doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2017.03.015</u> (2017).
- 74362Büscher, B. et al. Half-Earth or Whole Earth? Radical ideas for conservation, and their744implications. Oryx 51, 407-410, doi:10.1017/S0030605316001228 (2016).

745	63	Tallis, H. M. <i>et al.</i> An attainable global vision for conservation and human well-being.
746		Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment 16 , 563-570, doi:10.1002/fee.1965 (2018).
747	64	Díaz, S. <i>et al</i> . Pervasive human-driven decline of life on Earth points to the need for
748		transformative change. <i>Science</i> 366 , eaax3100, doi:10.1126/science.aax3100 (2019).
749	65	Donald, P. F. <i>et al.</i> Important Bird and Biodiversity Areas (IBAs): the development and
750		characteristics of a global inventory of key sites for biodiversity. Bird Conservation
751		International 29 , 177-198, doi:10.1017/S0959270918000102 (2019).
752	66	Ricketts, T. H. et al. Pinpointing and preventing imminent extinctions. Proceedings of the
753		National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 102 , 18497-18501,
754		doi:10.1073/pnas.0509060102 (2005).
755	67	IUCN. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, < <u>http://www.iucnredlist.org</u> > (2017).
756	68	BirdLife. Birdlife International and Handbook of the Birds of the World: Bird species
757		distribution maps of the world. Version 2020.1. (2020).
758	69	Roll, U. <i>et al.</i> The global distribution of tetrapods reveals a need for targeted reptile
759	05	conservation. Nature Ecology & Evolution 1, 1677-1682, doi:10.1038/s41559-017-0332-2
760		(2017).
761	70	Mogg, S., Fastre, C., Jung, M. & Visconti, P. Targeted expansion of Protected Areas to
762	70	maximise the persistence of terrestrial mammals. <i>bioRxiv</i> , 608992, doi:10.1101/608992
763		(2019).
764	71	Jantke, K. <i>et al.</i> Poor ecological representation by an expensive reserve system: Evaluating
765	/1	35 years of marine protected area expansion. <i>Conservation Letters</i> 11 , e12584,
766		doi:10.1111/conl.12584 (2018).
767	70	
767	72	Beyer, H. L., Dujardin, Y., Watts, M. E. & Possingham, H. P. Solving conservation planning problems with integer linear programming. <i>Ecological Modelling</i> 328 , 14-22,
768		
709	72	doi: <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2016.02.005</u> (2016). Di Marco, M., Watson, J. E. M., Possingham, H. P. & Venter, O. Limitations and trade-offs in
	73	-
771 772		the use of species distribution maps for protected area planning. <i>Journal of Applied Ecology</i> 54 , 402-411, doi:10.1111/1365-2664.12771 (2017).
773	74	Cheok, J., Pressey, R. L., Weeks, R., Andréfouët, S. & Moloney, J. Sympathy for the Devil:
	74	
774 775		Detailing the Effects of Planning-Unit Size, Thematic Resolution of Reef Classes, and
775		Socioeconomic Costs on Spatial Priorities for Marine Conservation. <i>PLOS ONE</i> 11 , e0164869,
776	75	doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0164869 (2016).
777	75	Venter, O. <i>et al.</i> Global terrestrial Human Footprint maps for 1993 and 2009. <i>Scientific Data</i>
778	70	3 , 160067, doi:10.1038/sdata.2016.67 (2016).
779	76	Venter, O. <i>et al.</i> Sixteen years of change in the global terrestrial human footprint and
780		implications for biodiversity conservation. <i>Nature Communications</i> 7 , 12558,
781		doi:10.1038/ncomms12558 (2016).
782	77	Naidoo, R. & Iwamura, T. Global-scale mapping of economic benefits from agricultural lands:
783		Implications for conservation priorities. <i>Biological Conservation</i> 140 , 40-49,
784		doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2007.07.025 (2007).
785	78	ESA. (2017).
786	79	Montesino Pouzols, F. et al. Global protected area expansion is compromised by projected
787		land-use and parochialism. <i>Nature</i> 516 , 383-386, doi:10.1038/nature14032 (2014).
788	80	Schleicher, J. <i>et al.</i> Protecting half of the planet could directly affect over one billion people.
789		Nature Sustainability 2 , 1094-1096, doi:10.1038/s41893-019-0423-y (2019).
790		

792 Acknowledgements

- 793 We thank Peadar Brehony, Peter Tyrell, Chris Sandbrook, Oscar Venter and Piero
- 794 Visconti for thoughtful comments on the manuscript.
- 795

796 Author Contributions

- J.R.A, J.E.M.W, and H.P.P. framed the study. J.R.A., S.C.A., M.D.M., G.G., P.M.
- carried out the analyses. All authors discussed and interpreted the results. J.R.A
- 799 wrote the manuscript with support from all authors.

800

801 Competing interests

- 802 The authors declare no financial competing interests. The authors who work for the
- 803 Wildlife Conservation Society acknowledge that wilderness conservation is part of
- 804 their organisation's agenda. Similarly, the Authors from BirdLife international
- 805 acknowledge that Key Biodiversity Areas are part of their organisational agenda.