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# Proactive Conservation to Prevent Habitat Losses to Agricultural Expansion

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**The projected loss of millions of square kilometres of natural ecosystems to meet future demand for food, animal feed, fibre, and bioenergy crops is likely to massively escalate threats to biodiversity. Reducing these threats requires a detailed knowledge of how and where they are likely to be most severe. We developed a geographically explicit model of future agricultural land clearance based on observed historic changes and combine the outputs with species-specific habitat preferences for 19,859 species of terrestrial vertebrates. We project that 87.7% of these species will lose habitat to agricultural expansion by 2050, with 1,280 species projected to lose  $\geq 25\%$  of their habitat. Proactive policies targeting how, where, and what food is produced could reduce these threats, with a combination of approaches potentially preventing almost all these losses while contributing to healthier human diets. As international biodiversity targets are set to be**

31 **updated in 2021, these results highlight the importance of proactive efforts to safeguard**  
32 **biodiversity by reducing demand for agricultural land.**

33

34 Biodiversity declines are accelerating across the world<sup>1–3</sup>, with one fifth of terrestrial  
35 vertebrates threatened with extinction (categorised by the International Union for the  
36 Conservation of Nature, IUCN, as Vulnerable, Endangered, or Critically Endangered<sup>4</sup>).  
37 Habitat loss, driven by agricultural expansion, is the greatest threat to terrestrial vertebrates<sup>5,6</sup>.  
38 If current agricultural trends continue, pressures on biodiversity will increase substantially:  
39 projections based on population growth<sup>7</sup> and dietary transitions estimate the need for 2-  
40 10 million square kilometres of new agricultural land, largely cleared at the expense of  
41 natural habitats<sup>8–11</sup>. In the face of these trends, conventional conservation approaches, such as  
42 site based conservation, may be insufficient to conserve biodiversity<sup>12,13</sup>. Policies to reduce  
43 the underlying threats to biodiversity—such as agricultural expansion—through proactive  
44 approaches will likely be needed to complement existing efforts<sup>5,14</sup>.

45 Responding to the impending biodiversity crisis requires decisions informed by high  
46 resolution, spatially explicit and species-specific assessments on many thousands of species  
47 to identify the species and landscapes most at risk. Results from these assessments can be  
48 used to help plan appropriate conservation responses—such as species- or location-specific  
49 legislation—and to assess which proactive changes to food systems have the greatest  
50 potential to reduce future threats to biodiversity before they occur. The utility of most  
51 existing analyses for conservation planning and action has been limited by coarse spatial  
52 resolutions; a focus on a relatively small suite of species or on generalized biodiversity  
53 metrics such as species richness; or using narrative pathways that are neither tied to current  
54 agricultural trajectories nor able to examine how specific changes to food systems might  
55 mitigate future biodiversity declines<sup>5,12,15,16</sup> (see Methods and Supplementary Information).

56 We address these limitations by developing an analytical framework that increases both the  
57 breadth and specificity of analyses, as well as their applicability to conservation efforts  
58 (Supplementary Figure 1). Specifically, we analyse at a high spatial resolution (1.5 x 1.5 km)  
59 the impacts of likely agricultural expansion on an unprecedented number of species (almost  
60 20,000), while explicitly accounting for differences in how individual species may be  
61 impacted by agricultural land-use change, and by analyzing how proactive food-system  
62 transitions might mitigate future biodiversity declines. In total, this approach enables us to  
63 identify the species and landscapes most at risk from agricultural expansion under current  
64 trajectories, as well as how alternative proactive agricultural policies might reduce these  
65 threats.

### 66 **Projecting agricultural expansion under Business-As-Usual**

67 We developed a flexible and high-resolution approach to modelling agricultural land-cover  
68 change. Our approach is built on observed empirical relationships between historical changes  
69 in agricultural land cover and known correlates of agricultural land-cover change (see  
70 Methods, Supplementary Figure 2). This differs from the approaches employed by global  
71 food system models such as IMAGE, MAgPIE, or GLOBIOM, which are based more on  
72 economic theory and expert opinion than on empirically observed patterns and changes. Our  
73 high resolution projections explore agricultural scenarios that are derived from observed  
74 relationships and trends, and can thus incorporate factors which are not accounted for in  
75 economic theory (for example strong or weak enforcement of protected areas, or the non-  
76 economic factors that determine agricultural expansion), and also be readily updated as new  
77 land-cover data become available. To achieve this, we developed a flexible, spatially explicit,  
78 land allocation model at a resolution of 1.5 x 1.5 km based on observed changes in  
79 agricultural land cover from 2001-2013 and spatially-explicit data on likely determinants of  
80 land-cover change including the suitability of an area for agricultural production<sup>17</sup>, current

81 agricultural land cover<sup>18</sup>, previous patterns of agricultural land cover change<sup>18</sup>, proximity to  
82 other agricultural land<sup>18</sup>, market access<sup>19</sup>, and the location of protected areas<sup>20</sup>. Specifically,  
83 we used satellite-derived historic land cover data<sup>18</sup> from 2002 to 2007 to fit region-specific  
84 multinomial models to estimate the probability that agricultural land cover in individual cells  
85 increased, decreased, or remained the same from 2007 to 2012. Next, we used the same  
86 satellite data to fit region-specific generalized linear models to estimate the magnitude of any  
87 such change from 2007 to 2012.

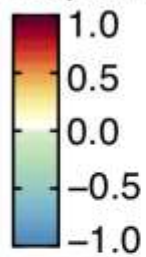
88 We then paired this two-part land allocation model with country-level estimates from 2010 to  
89 2050 of agricultural land demand at five year intervals derived from the EAT-Lancet global  
90 food system model<sup>11</sup>, that accounts for domestic food demand and international patterns of  
91 trade. For each country and time step, we used the land allocation model to first  
92 probabilistically select cells to experience a change in agricultural land-cover extent, and then  
93 second to estimate the magnitude of this change. This process was repeated until a country's  
94 estimated agricultural land demand was met, and replicated 25 times to account for the  
95 probabilistic nature of the model. Spatial patterns of agricultural expansion were consistent  
96 across model runs (Supplementary Figures 3, 4) and we therefore report results using the  
97 mean of the 25 model iterations.

98 Under Business-As-Usual (i.e. based on current trajectories), we projected a total increase in  
99 in global cropland of 26% or 3.35 million km<sup>2</sup> from 2010 to 2050. We projected particularly  
100 large increases in agricultural land throughout Sub-Saharan Africa (particularly tropical West  
101 Africa, the Rift Valley, and in the southern Sahel), South and Southeast Asia (particularly  
102 Bangladesh, Pakistan and southern Malaysia), and to a lesser extent Central and South  
103 America (large increases in northern Argentina, and much of Central America, smaller  
104 increases across southern Brazil) (Fig. 1, Supplementary Figure 5). These increases were  
105 driven by the EAT-Lancet model projecting income-dependent transitions towards diets that

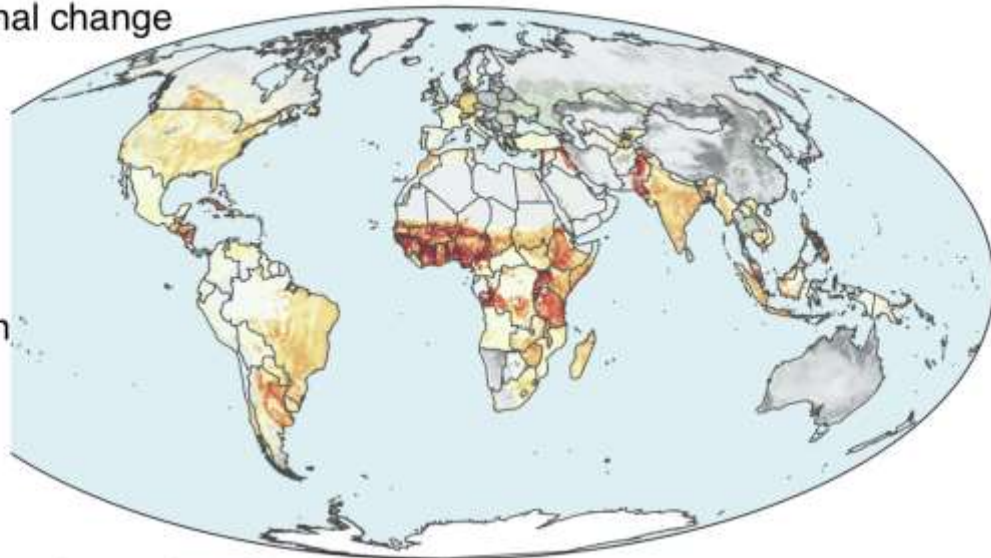
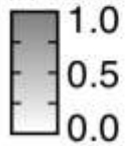
106 contain more calories and larger quantities of animal-based foods (Supplementary Figure 6),  
107 combining with high levels of projected population growth (Supplementary Figure 7) and low  
108 crop yields that are projected to increase slowly, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa  
109 (Supplementary Figure 8). In North America, we model projected increases in agricultural  
110 land in south-central Canada and throughout the U.S. but centered in the south-east, due  
111 largely to the EAT-Lancet model projecting increased demand for international exports.  
112 However, a combination of lower projected population increases than in Sub-Saharan Africa,  
113 South and Southeast Asia and Latin America, and higher crop yields led to smaller projected  
114 increases in agricultural land compared to these regions (Fig. 1, Supplementary Figure 5). In  
115 contrast, we projected reductions in agricultural land demand across eastern Europe and  
116 central and northern Asia (especially in Southern Russia and Eastern Belarus) due to small  
117 dietary changes projected by the EAT-Lancet model, combined with low or negative rates of  
118 population growth and high or increasing crop yields (Fig. 1, Supplementary Figures 5-8).

### **a Projected change in total agricultural land 2010-2050**

Proportional change

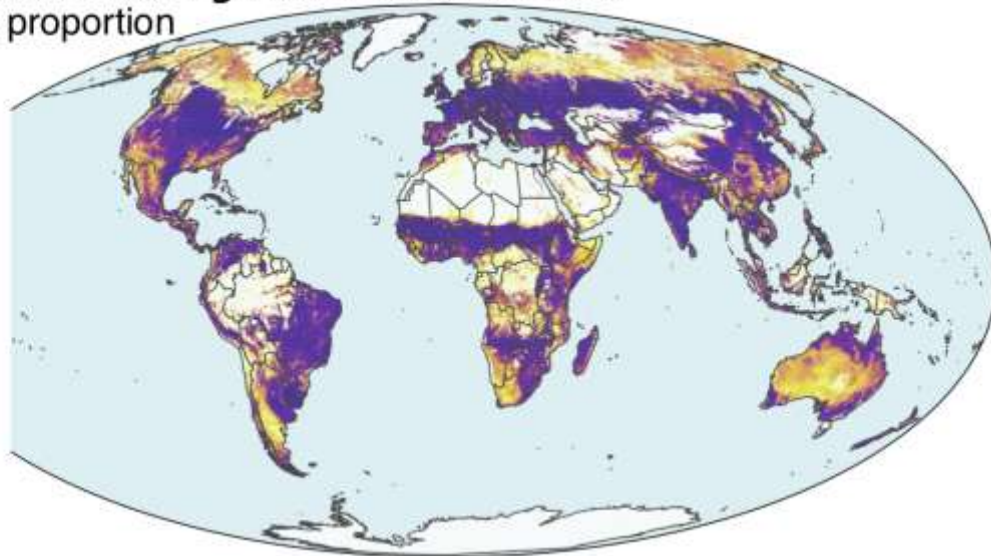
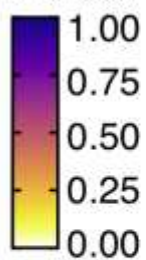


Proportion  
in 2010



### **b Projected total agricultural land 2050**

Projected proportion  
in 2050



119

120 **Figure 1. Projected extent of agricultural land in 2050 under Business-As-Usual**

121 **a** Projected change in the proportion of agricultural land (cropland plus pastureland, in  
122 colour) in each 1.5 x 1.5 km cell from 2010-2050, overlaid on proportions of agricultural  
123 land in 2010 for cells not projected to experience a change in extent (in greyscale). Note the  
124 offset scale to highlight areas with small decreases in the proportion of agricultural land.

125 **b** Projected proportion of agricultural land in each cell in 2050. Map produced using Natural  
126 Earth data v2.0 ([www.naturalearthdata.com](http://www.naturalearthdata.com)).

127

## 128 **Habitat losses under Business-As-Usual**

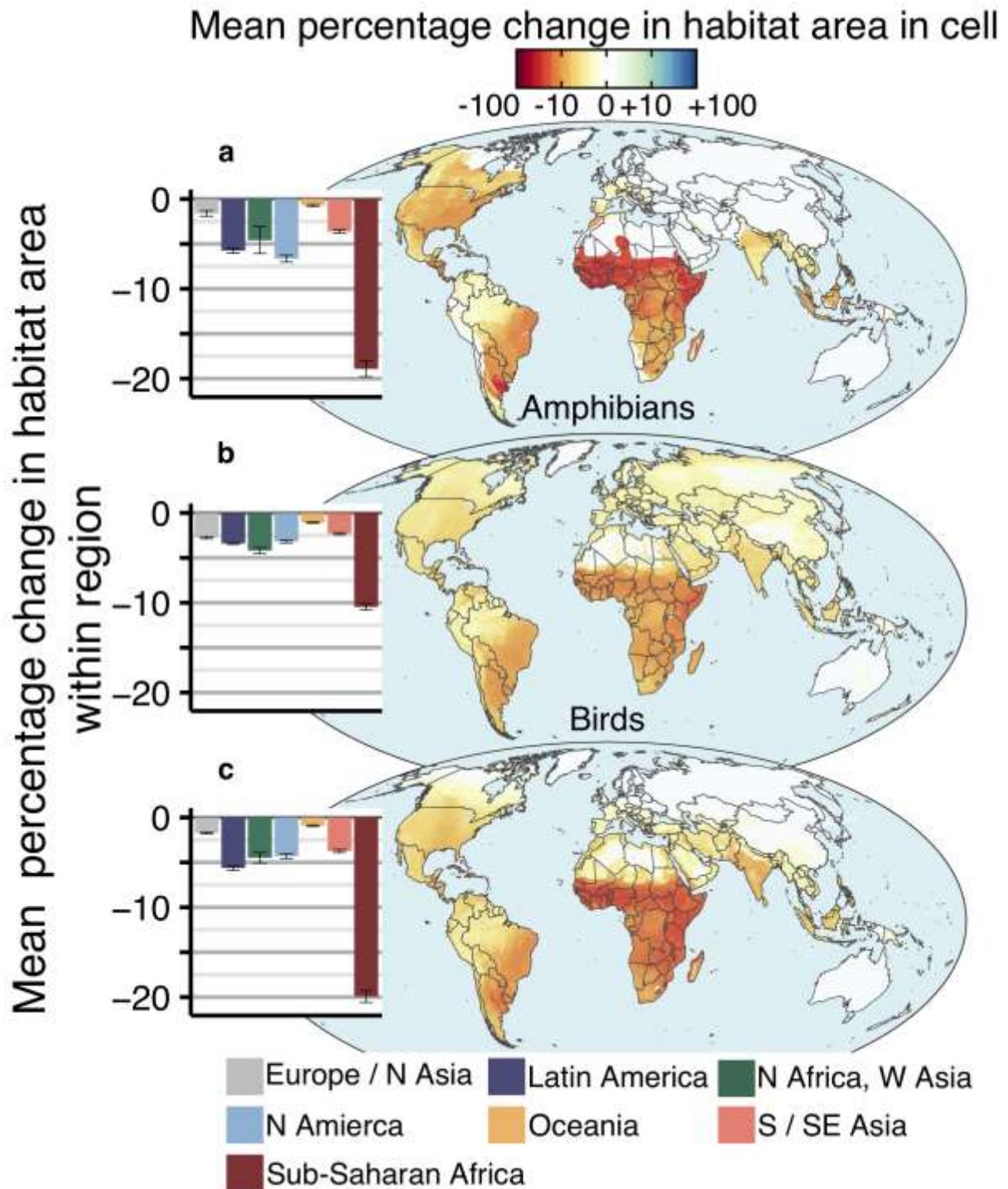
129 We next estimated changes in habitat area<sup>21</sup> from 2010 levels for each of 4,003 amphibian,  
130 10,895 bird, and 4,961 mammal species. To do so, we overlaid our projections of future  
131 agricultural cover with maps of 2010 habitat for each species<sup>22–24</sup>, using species-specific  
132 assessments of whether each species can survive and reproduce in agricultural land<sup>4</sup> to  
133 calculate changes in total area of habitat for each species (see Methods). We acknowledge  
134 that, because a species' population density will vary across its available habitat due to  
135 differences in climate, land cover, land-use intensity or abundances of other species<sup>16,25</sup>,  
136 habitat loss may not linearly equate to population change.

137 Under Business-As-Usual trajectories, we projected that 87.7% of species (17,409 species)  
138 would lose some habitat by 2050, 6.3% to have no change in habitat area, and 6.0% to have  
139 an increase in habitat area due to their survival in agricultural land, with 72.9% of these (877  
140 species) being birds. If natural habitats are allowed to regrow in abandoned agricultural land,  
141 these numbers, once habitats have re-established, are projected to be 76.1%, 6.1%, and  
142 17.8%, respectively, with considerable benefits for some species (Supplementary Data 1).  
143 Given the long time required for complete recovery after agricultural abandonment<sup>26</sup> we  
144 report results assuming that habitats do not recover in the timeframe considered, although our  
145 overall conclusions do not differ if we alter this assumption (Supplementary Data 1).

146 We projected a mean loss of  $5.8 \pm 0.1\%$  of 2010 habitat across all 19,859 species in the  
147 analysis (range: 100% loss to 78.2% increase); across species losing habitat, this value was  
148  $6.7 \pm 0.9\%$ , but with considerable variation between regions and species (Fig. 2). Projected  
149 mean habitat losses were greatest in Sub-Saharan Africa ( $14.4 \pm 0.3\%$  across all species)  
150 with particularly large losses for amphibians in Equatorial West Africa (where five  
151 ecoregions had projected mean losses of over 25%, and 10 ecoregions with mean losses over  
152 20%, Supplementary Table 1) and for mammals in East Africa (eight ecoregions had



153 projected mean losses over 18%, Supplementary Table 1). Large mean habitat losses were  
 154 also projected in the Atlantic Forest in Brazil, in Eastern Argentina, across Central America  
 155 and the Caribbean, and in parts of South and Southeast Asia (Fig. 2, Supplementary Table 1).



156

157 *Figure 2. Projected changes in habitat area in 2010-2050 under Business-As-Usual*

158 *conditions for a amphibians b birds c mammals. Maps show the mean change in habitat area*

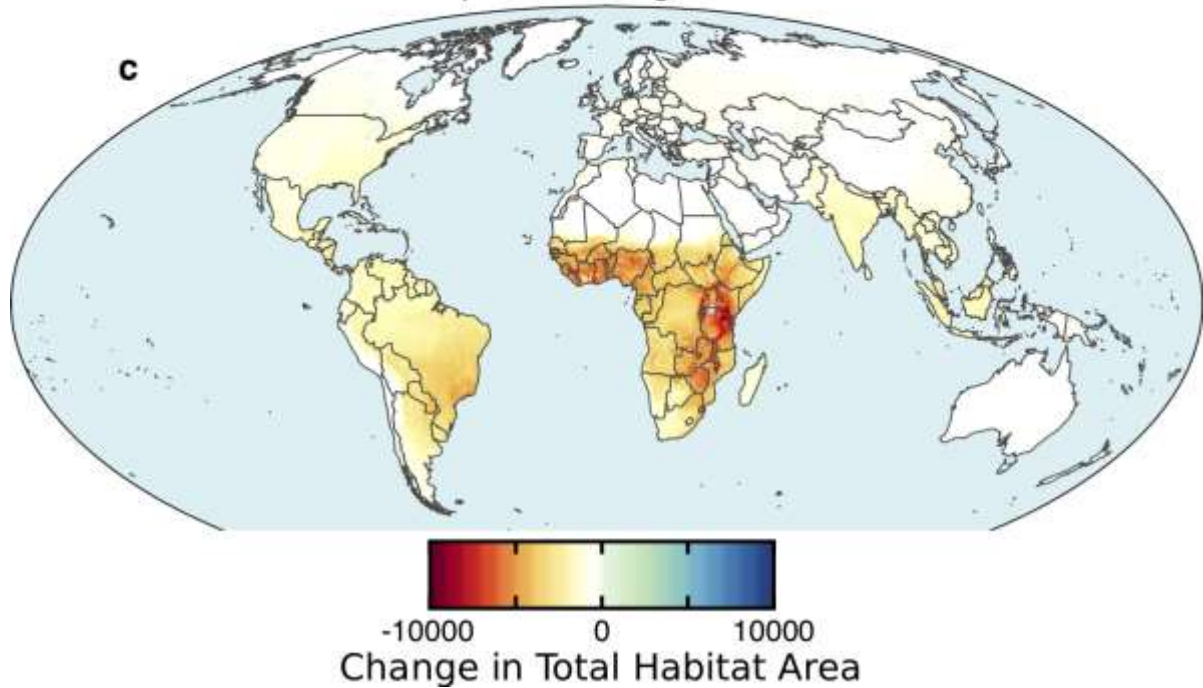
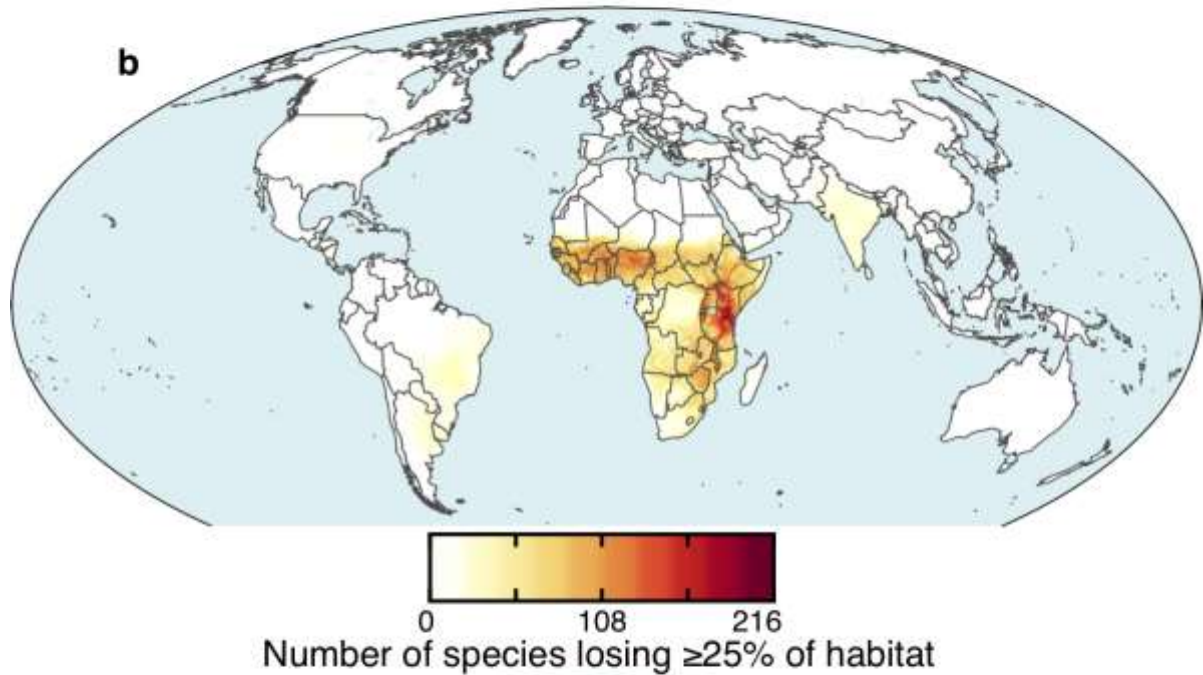
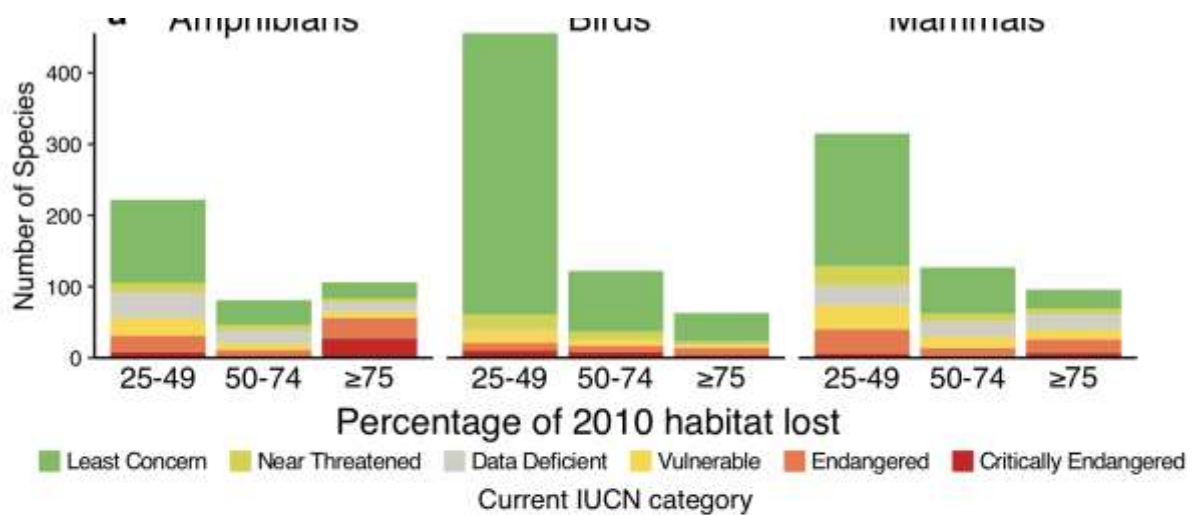
159 *for all species within a cell, with values on a log<sub>10</sub> scale. Insets show the mean change in*  
160 *habitat area for all species within a region. See Supplementary Data 2 for which countries*  
161 *are included in each region. Map produced using Natural Earth data v2.0*  
162 *([www.natureearthdata.com](http://www.natureearthdata.com)).*

163

164 Mean values conceal the severity of projected habitat losses for many species. By 2050,  
165 1,280 species were projected to lose at least 25% of their remaining habitat area (Fig. 3a) and  
166 will likely be at increased risk of global extinction. Of these species, 980 are not currently  
167 classified as globally threatened according to the IUCN and so may not be a primary focus of  
168 current conservation efforts. More alarmingly, 347 species were projected to lose at least  
169 50% of their remaining habitat; 96 at least 75%; and 33 at least 90%. A high proportion of  
170 these heavily impacted species are currently listed as globally threatened with extinction  
171 (34%, 52%, and 55%, respectively), strongly suggesting that agricultural expansion could  
172 lead to the regional or global extinction of many species in the coming decades. This  
173 highlights the need for analyses that project how and where future threats to biodiversity are  
174 likely to emerge, allowing conservationists and policy makers to act proactively to mitigate  
175 against threats.

176 Overall biodiversity impact will be greatest where high rates of habitat loss coincide with  
177 large numbers of species (Supplementary Figure 9). Loss of total habitat area—the mean  
178 habitat loss within a cell multiplied by the number of species present—as well as the number  
179 of species losing at least 25% of their habitat were projected to be highest in Sub-Saharan  
180 Africa, particularly the Rift Valley and throughout tropical Western Africa (Fig. 3b, c). In  
181 Sub-Saharan Africa 22.5% of species (941 species: 179 amphibians, 406 birds, and 356  
182 mammals) were projected to lose at least 25% of their remaining habitat, with 44 out of 52  
183 Sub-Saharan African countries containing at least 25 such species (Supplementary Data 7).

184 Projected habitat losses were also high in Latin America, particularly southeast Brazil and the  
185 remaining Atlantic Forest, with 246 species, including 99 amphibians, projected to lose at  
186 least 25% of their habitat (Fig. 3b). Our results highlight the disproportionate share of local,  
187 regional, or even global extinctions that Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America are projected  
188 to account for, containing 93% of the species projected to lose  $\geq 25\%$  of their remaining  
189 habitat. These continent-wide patterns of habitat loss could radically transform ecosystems  
190 that hold a large proportion of the world's biodiversity, particularly of large mammals in Sub-  
191 Saharan Africa and birds and amphibians in Latin America<sup>5</sup>.



193 **Fig. 3. Severity of projected habitat losses from 2010-2050** *a* Number of species projected to  
194 lose  $\geq 25\%$  of their 2010 habitat by 2050, split by current IUCN status *b* Global distribution  
195 of species projected to lose  $\geq 25\%$  of their 2010 habitat by 2050 *c* Projected changes in total  
196 habitat (mean habitat loss in a cell multiplied by the number of species present) by 2050. See  
197 Supplementary Figure 10 for projected total habitat loss for individual taxa. Map produced  
198 using Natural Earth data v2.0 ([www.naturalearthdata.com](http://www.naturalearthdata.com)).

199

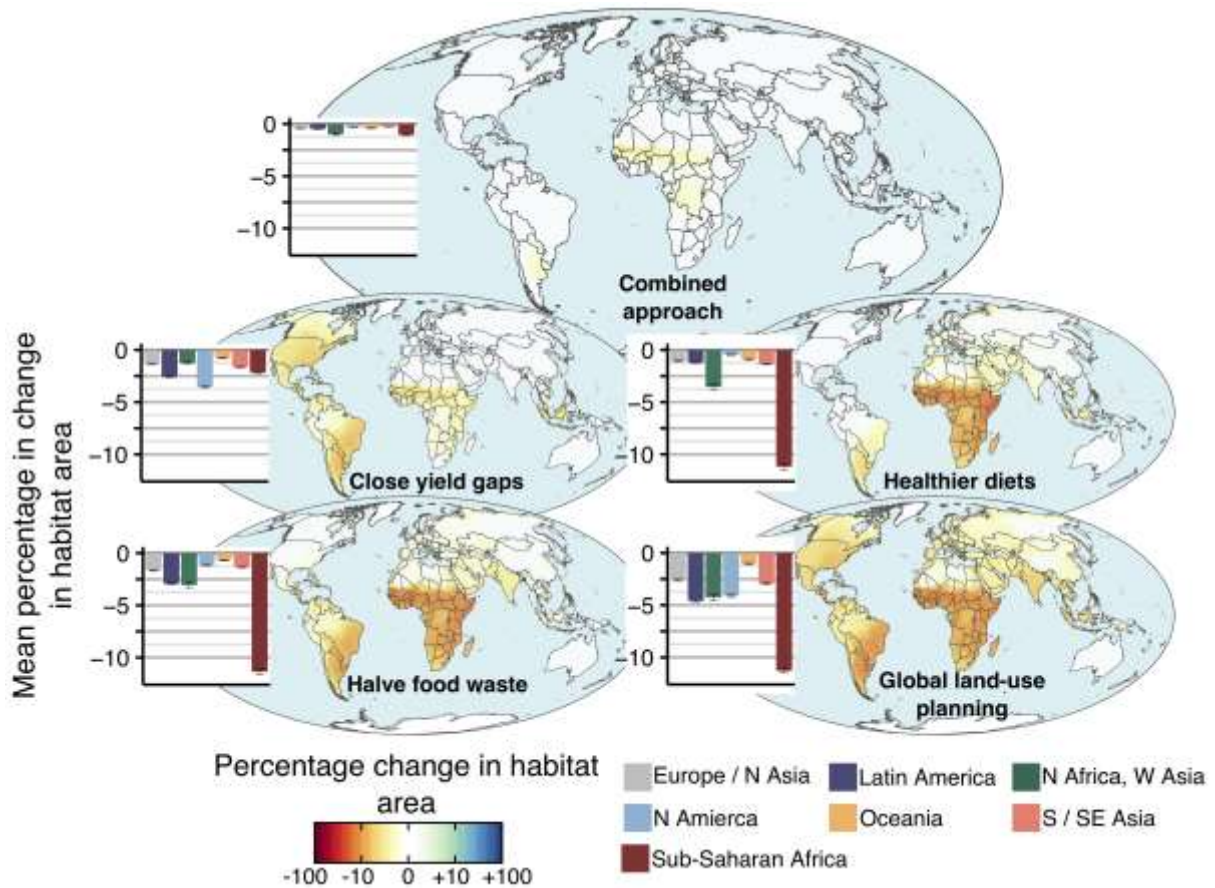
200 We projected small decreases in agricultural land in parts of Europe, Central and Northern  
201 Asia, China, Australia, and New Zealand (Fig 1a). If these lands are allowed to revert to a  
202 natural state—a process which may take many decades<sup>27</sup>—then there is the possibility for  
203 small increases in habitat area in these regions. However, these potential increases for some  
204 species were far outweighed by projected losses in habitat area for others. Allowing for  
205 habitat recovery or restoration after agricultural abandonment has a minor impact to the  
206 overall projections of widespread habitat loss across all species examined (Supplementary  
207 Data 1).

### 208 **Proactive food-system changes to reduce biodiversity threats**

209 The projected severity of agricultural land-cover change on habitat area means that proactive  
210 policies to reduce future demand for agricultural land will likely be required to mitigate  
211 widespread biodiversity declines. To investigate the potential of such proactive approaches,  
212 we developed a scenario that implemented four changes to food systems: closing crop yield  
213 gaps globally; a global transition to healthier diets; halving food loss and waste; and global  
214 agricultural land-use planning to avoid competition between food production and habitat  
215 protection. In addition, to identify the relative impacts of specific changes to the food system,  
216 we investigated the impacts of each approach individually. We used previously published  
217 scenarios for yield increases, diets and food waste<sup>5,11</sup>, and used projected habitat losses in the

218 Business-As-Usual scenario to identify the countries that could most benefit from global  
219 agricultural land-use planning. In each case, we assumed each approach was steadily adopted,  
220 such that the complete transition was only achieved in 2050 (see Methods and Supplementary  
221 Information for details). Under the “combined approach” scenario, employing all four  
222 approaches, we projected that global cropland would, by 2050, actually decline by nearly 3.4  
223 million square kilometres relative to 2010, and by 6.7 million square kilometres relative to  
224 Business-As-Usual (Supplementary Table 2, Supplementary Figure 11).

225 We also projected that under the combined approach all regions would see mean habitat  
226 losses of 1% or less by 2050 (Fig. 4). That is, with global coordination and rapid action, it  
227 should be possible to provide healthy diets for the global population in 2050 without major  
228 habitat losses. The greatest benefits compared to Business-As-Usual were in Sub-Saharan  
229 Africa, where we projected a mean loss of global habitat of  $1.0 \pm 0.04\%$  under the combined  
230 approach compared with a mean loss of  $14.4 \pm 0.3\%$  under Business-As-Usual (Fig. 4,  
231 Supplementary Figures 12-14). If natural habitats are allowed to regrow in abandoned  
232 agricultural land, then we projected mean habitat would increase in every region  
233 (Supplementary Figures 15-16; Supplementary Data 1).



234

235 **Figure 4. Projected changes in mean habitat area from 2010-2050 under alternative**  
 236 **scenarios.** Maps show the mean change for all species of all taxa in a cell, with values on a  
 237 *log<sub>10</sub>* scale. Insets show the mean change in habitat area for all species within a region. The  
 238 lower four panels show the results from scenarios using single approaches, the top panel  
 239 (“Combined approach”) show the combination of all four approaches. See Supplementary  
 240 Data 2 for which countries are included in each region. Patterns for total habitat change are  
 241 similar (Supplementary Figure 13). Map produced using Natural Earth data v2.0  
 242 ([www.natureearthdata.com](http://www.natureearthdata.com)).

243

244 Perhaps more importantly, habitat losses were far less severe for the species most heavily  
 245 impacted under Business-As-Usual. Globally, only 33 species were projected to lose more  
 246 than 25% of their habitat, compared to 1,280 under Business-As-Usual. Thus, our analyses

247 demonstrate that addressing the underlying drivers of agricultural expansion has the potential  
248 to greatly benefit the most at-risk species, and thereby reduce extinction risks. However, the  
249 majority of species (81.6%) were still projected to lose small amounts of habitat, suggesting  
250 that conventional conservation measures will continue to be vital to protect biodiversity.

251 The impacts of individual approaches varied regionally. Closing yield gaps was projected to  
252 have the largest overall benefits (Fig. 4) and was particularly effective in North Africa, West  
253 Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa, where large yield gaps remain<sup>28,29</sup>. When the only change  
254 from Business-As-Usual practices was closing yield gaps, 33 species in these regions were  
255 projected to lose more than 25% of their habitat, compared to 953 under Business-As-Usual.  
256 Projected benefits were considerably lower in other regions, where yield gaps are smaller, but  
257 still reduced the number of such species from 361 to 103. The magnitude of these projected  
258 benefits supports, and is supported by, recent analyses investigating the land-saving potential  
259 of closing yield gaps across the world<sup>30,31</sup>. However, increasing yields often has negative  
260 consequences for species within agricultural lands<sup>16,32,33</sup>. As such, while all scenarios could  
261 see declines in the suitability of croplands by 2050, this effect may be exacerbated by closing  
262 yield gaps. For most species, these losses are likely to be outweighed by the land-saving  
263 benefits of yield increases<sup>32</sup> but the benefits of closing yield gaps may be reduced for some  
264 species that rely heavily on agricultural lands.

265 Transitioning to healthier diets and reducing food waste were projected to have considerable  
266 benefits—while not completely eliminating habitat losses—particularly in wealthier regions  
267 with high per capita consumption of both calories and animal-based foods, and in regions  
268 such as South America with high consumption of animal-based foods (Fig. 4). In contrast,  
269 projected benefits from international land-use planning were far smaller, with 1,026 species  
270 being still projected to lose at least 25% of their 2010 habitat. The biggest benefits of land-  
271 use planning were in Sub-Saharan Africa, where all the countries with reduced agricultural



272 land demand under this scenario were located. Even here, however, there were still 646  
273 species projected to lose  $\geq 25\%$  of 2010 habitat, compared to 942 under Business-As-Usual,  
274 673 under healthy diets, and 695 under halved food waste.

275 Analyzing the potential benefits of individual changes to the food system reveals that  
276 combining different approaches could have synergistic benefits. For example, a country  
277 projected to see a 20% fall in food demand under the halved food waste scenario and a 50%  
278 increase in yields under the close yield gaps scenario would see 20% and 33% reductions in  
279 land demand under each scenario respectively, compared to Business-As-Usual. However,  
280 combining these two approaches reduces the area required to just 53% of Business-As-Usual  
281 demand. This results in the avoided habitat loss under the combined approach being greater  
282 than the sum of the avoided loss under the four constituent scenarios (Fig. 4).

### 283 **Maintaining biodiversity in a world with 10 billion people**

284 Our projections suggest that, under Business-As-Usual, agricultural expansion will drive  
285 widespread and severe biodiversity declines, but that these could be avoided with concerted,  
286 proactive efforts to address food consumption and production as ultimate drivers of  
287 biodiversity loss. Our approach and results are immediately relevant to international efforts  
288 for the development of new strategic goals and targets for 2030 and 2050 under the auspices  
289 of the Convention on Biological Diversity in 2021. We identify the policy approaches with  
290 the greatest potential to combat the underlying drivers of future biodiversity declines in  
291 different countries and highlight, at spatial scales relevant to conservation action, the species  
292 and landscapes most at risk. These results can support proactive planning of both on-the-  
293 ground conservation schemes and changes to the wider food system to mitigate threats.

294 Our approach offers an empirically derived complement to integrated assessment models  
295 such as GLOBIOM<sup>36</sup>, MAgPIE<sup>37</sup> and IMAGE<sup>38</sup>. Despite the difference in approaches,  
296 our projections are in broad agreement with those based on Shared Socioeconomic Pathways

297 (SSPs), with the exception of projected agricultural expansion in North America, which is not  
298 seen under all the Pathways<sup>39</sup>. This difference results from increased crop demand projected  
299 by the EAT-Lancet projections<sup>11</sup> and are in agreement with analyses based on other non-SSP  
300 projections<sup>40</sup>. Our projections are at a higher resolution than most existing efforts, while the  
301 modular and adaptable nature of the land allocation model means it can be easily updated as  
302 new data become available, and can be paired with any estimate of future agricultural land  
303 demand at local to global scales (Supplementary Figure 1). There are likely to be non-  
304 linearities in future agricultural expansion, for example, the construction of a new road or the  
305 degazetting of a protected area could lead to rapid agricultural expansion in a region that  
306 neither our approach nor integrated assessment models highlight as vulnerable. Our approach,  
307 however, allows for the rapid inclusion of these changes into projections by adjusting the  
308 value of explanatory variables (in these cases travel time and the presence of a protected area)  
309 and recalculating the probability of future agricultural expansion. Thus, we hope that our  
310 approach can help provide a dynamic and responsive tool for decision makers to investigate  
311 the potential impacts of different policies.

312 In reality, threats to biodiversity could be considerably greater than those we project: other  
313 projections of future agricultural land demand are higher than those we use<sup>5</sup>, and we do not  
314 include the impacts of anthropogenic climate change, habitat fragmentation, over-  
315 exploitation, invasive species or pollution<sup>5,6,41-43</sup>. Climate change is likely to drive  
316 widespread changes in biodiversity by altering the location of suitable habitats and  
317 environments, and may have synergistic effects with habitat loss and fragmentation from  
318 agricultural expansion<sup>43</sup>. In addition, its effect on agricultural yields<sup>44</sup> and the relative  
319 suitability of different regions for various crops<sup>45</sup> could have indirect impacts on biodiversity  
320 by altering patterns of agricultural expansion. Uncertainty in how climatic changes will affect  
321 agriculture<sup>46</sup> and species<sup>47</sup> precludes quantitatively assessing these impacts, but we note that

322 the scenarios we discuss could also help reduce the impacts of climate change and other  
323 threats. Reducing demand for new cropland can reduce greenhouse gas emissions from land-  
324 use change, reduce habitat fragmentation, and lessen the opportunity costs of protected areas  
325 for local people<sup>48</sup>, while land-use planning could help preserve unfragmented habitats or  
326 allow habitat restoration.

327 Here, we demonstrate the potential conservation benefits of multiple approaches, but our  
328 findings are still a long way from specific policy recommendations. Actions will require  
329 locally appropriate policies, taking into account individual countries' socio-economic and  
330 governance environments, the cultural acceptance of different strategies, and on-the-ground  
331 capacity to implement strategies. Past successes can provide insights into how to ensure that  
332 strategies are both effective and maintain fair and equitable access to food, for example,  
333 through increasing crop yields<sup>49-51</sup>, shifting to healthier diets<sup>52-54</sup>, reducing food and crop  
334 waste<sup>55,56</sup>, and implementing landscape-scale land-use planning<sup>57</sup>. Learning from previous  
335 efforts to increase sustainability can also be used to avoid unintended consequences, such as  
336 when increases in agricultural yields promote local agricultural expansion<sup>58</sup>.

337 Although fully achieving the approaches we investigated may not be feasible in all regions,  
338 even the partial implementation of proactive approaches could be environmentally beneficial.  
339 As we approach the updating of the Convention on Biological Diversity's targets for global  
340 biodiversity conservation in 2021, and the halfway point of the SDGs in 2022, our results  
341 strongly suggest there are co-benefits to biodiversity of appropriate agriculture-related  
342 development: reducing agricultural land-cover change can reduce anthropogenic climate  
343 change and alleviate poverty by increasing farmer incomes; shifting to healthier diets and  
344 reducing food waste can reduce hunger and support better health and sustainable  
345 consumption. These proactive efforts to change how we produce and consume food will be a

346 major challenge, but one which cannot be avoided if we are to safeguard species for future  
347 generations.

## 348 **Methods**

349 To project impacts of future agricultural land-cover change on biodiversity, we linked a land  
350 demand model, a land allocation model, and a biodiversity model in a flexible framework  
351 (Supplementary Figure 1). This approach can be readily modified, for example to different  
352 future scenarios or different spatial scales, or to incorporate new data as it becomes available.  
353 Collectively, this approach enables us to project changes in land cover and their impact on  
354 habitat availability for individual species at a resolution of 1.5 x 1.5 km for every five years  
355 from 2010 to 2050. Our analysis includes nearly 20,000 species of birds, mammals, and  
356 amphibians, and 152 nations that occupy >99% of Earth's ice-free land and contain >99% of  
357 current agricultural land (see Supplementary Data 2). Full details of model specification,  
358 datasets used, and sensitivity analyses are in Supplementary Information.

## 359 **Land Demand Model**

360

### 361 *Projecting agricultural land demand under Business-As-Usual*

362 We combined income-and-trade-dependent projections of country-specific agricultural  
363 production under Business-As-Usual conditions (i.e. continuing historic trajectories) from  
364 EAT-Lancet Commission<sup>11</sup>, with the United Nation's medium-fertility population  
365 projection<sup>59,60</sup> and previously published yield projections<sup>5</sup>. We did not use the population  
366 projections used in EAT-Lancet because they are derived from Shared Socioeconomic  
367 Pathway (SSP) scenarios<sup>61</sup> and so are not updated to account for recent population trends. As  
368 such, SSP 2—the pathway most similar to current Business-As-Usual trajectories—projects  
369 approximately 570 million fewer people worldwide than current UN medium variant

370 population projections<sup>7</sup>. Additionally, we did not use the yield scenarios from the EAT-  
371 Lancet projections because they assume increases in future crop yields at faster-than-historic  
372 trajectories<sup>11</sup>, something for which there is no empirical support<sup>62</sup>. We instead used published  
373 crop yield forecasts that project crop yield increases along historic linear trajectories, but  
374 cannot surpass current country-specific maximum potential yields<sup>5,28,29</sup>.

375 We projected cropland demand for each country in each five-year time period from 2010 to  
376 2050. To do so, we divided projections of demand for national food production (derived from  
377 combining EAT-Lancet projections with UN population projections) by crop yield  
378 projections. EAT-Lancet estimates of current cropland are based on FAO data<sup>17</sup>, while the  
379 Land Allocation Model is based on MODIS satellite data<sup>18</sup>. We therefore harmonised EAT-  
380 Lancet projections with satellite data by: (1) calculating proportional change in cropland in  
381 each five-year time period from 2010-2050; (2) estimating the total cropland in each country  
382 in 2010 based on MODIS data; (3) multiplying this satellite-derived estimate by the projected  
383 change in proportional demand; and (4) capping country-specific land-demand projections at  
384 FAO estimates of potential arable land in each country<sup>63</sup>. This ensures continuity between  
385 datasets but could lead to under-projecting agricultural expansion in countries where cropland  
386 is under-detected by satellite data (e.g. very small areas are farmed, or farming is largely  
387 under dense tree cover).

388 We assumed the area of pastureland remained constant for each country, following recent  
389 patterns<sup>63</sup>, reallocating pastureland within a country if cropland expanded into existing  
390 pastureland. See Supplementary Information for more details.

391 *Agricultural land demand under alternative scenarios*

392 To investigate the impact of proactive policies that could reduce future cropland demand we  
393 repeated the Business-As-Usual analysis with five alternative scenarios (see Supplementary  
394 Table 3 for assumptions of different scenarios):

395 (1) **Close yield gaps:** Yields increase linearly from current yields to 80% of the estimated  
396 maximum potential<sup>28,29</sup> by 2050. Increasing yields above 80% is rarely achieved over  
397 large areas<sup>64</sup>.

398 (2) **Healthier diets:** Diets transition from current diets to healthier composition and  
399 caloric quantity<sup>11</sup>.

400 (3) **Halved food waste:** Food loss and waste throughout entire food supply chains is  
401 reduced from current rates<sup>65</sup> by 25% by 2030 and 50% by 2050.

402 (4) **International land-use planning:** Agricultural production shifts from the 25  
403 countries projected to have the greatest mean losses of suitable habitat across all  
404 species to countries where less than 10% of species are threatened with extinction and  
405 less than 10% of species would qualify as being threatened with extinction under  
406 IUCN Criteria B2<sup>66</sup> under Business-As-Usual in 2050. The shift in agricultural  
407 production is gradual, such that an additional 10% of total food demand is imported  
408 by 2030 and by 20% in 2050.

409 The goal of this scenario is to estimate the impact on biodiversity of land use planning  
410 across international borders, avoiding expansion in the most at-risk countries. We  
411 recognize this scenario could be antagonistic to food security and sovereignty,  
412 especially in countries where agriculture is a large source of employment and/or  
413 income.

414 (5) **Combined approach:** All four approaches were adopted simultaneously.

415 We assumed each approach was steadily adopted, such that the complete transition was only  
416 achieved in 2050. We estimated that, by 2050, each approach individually—with the  
417 exception of international land-use planning—could reduce global demand for cropland by at  
418 least 2 million square kilometres, while simultaneous adoption of all four scenarios would  
419 reduce global land demand by ~6.7 million square kilometres (Supplementary Table 2,  
420 Supplementary Figure 11). International land-use planning had smaller impacts, reducing  
421 global demand by 230,000 square kilometres. See Supplementary Information for more  
422 explanation on the alternative land demand scenarios.

### 423 **Land Allocation Model**

424 We developed a novel and highly resolute (1.5 x 1.5km) spatial allocation model using  
425 observed relationships between explanatory variables and changes in land cover to project  
426 future spatial patterns of agricultural land-cover change. We fitted relationships between  
427 empirically observed changes in cropland or pastureland and a set of key explanatory  
428 variables and assumed that these fitted relationships remain constant into the future. Thus, we  
429 are not simply extrapolating past changes in agricultural land into the future, but rather basing  
430 projections on an understanding of the factors that shape how spatial patterns of agricultural  
431 land-cover evolve.

432 By separating projections of agricultural land demand from its spatial allocation, our  
433 approach enables the investigation of how specific interventions might influence future land-  
434 use change and biodiversity loss. Our projections are at a far higher resolution than existing  
435 projections of agricultural land-use change, e.g. GLOBIOM (5-30 arc minutes; approximately  
436 100-2,500 km<sup>2</sup> at the equator)<sup>36</sup>, CLUMondo, and MAgPie (30 arc minutes; approximately  
437 2,500 km<sup>2</sup> at the equator)<sup>37,40</sup>. This allows stakeholders to identify areas likely to experience  
438 large biodiversity declines at the spatial scales at which conservation actions and policies are  
439 implemented.

## 440 *Modelling past changes in agricultural land*

441 To understand past drivers of change in agricultural land we applied a two-stage modelling  
442 process applied to each 1.5 x 1.5 km terrestrial cell on earth. First, we fitted a multinomial  
443 regression to estimate the probability a cell experienced a change in the proportion of  
444 agricultural land during a five-year period. Secondly, we fitted generalized linear models  
445 (GLMs) to estimate the magnitude of this change. We fitted separate models for cropland and  
446 pastureland because of differences in the relative importance of factors influencing their  
447 dynamics.

### 448 ***Data Inputs***

449 Land-cover change is driven by interacting biophysical and socio-economic forces<sup>67</sup>. We  
450 reviewed land-cover change literature to identify potential drivers of agricultural expansion  
451 and included those for which global data was available at appropriate spatial resolutions. We  
452 therefore included in our models: extent of surrounding agricultural land; historic changes in  
453 agricultural land; agro-ecological suitability (AES); travel time to large cities (>50,000  
454 people) as a proxy for market access; and the presence of a protected area in a cell<sup>67-73</sup>. See  
455 Supplementary Information for more detail and data sources.

456 We resampled all data to 1.5 x 1.5 km Mollweide projection using the `resample()` function in  
457 the raster package<sup>75</sup> in R<sup>76</sup>. Note that AES was originally at a coarser resolution<sup>17</sup>  
458 (Supplementary Table 4), adding a degree of uncertainty to our projections (see  
459 Supplementary Information for details). All other input data was originally at a higher  
460 resolution.

### 461 ***Model fitting***

462 We fitted region-specific multinomial regressions to estimate the probability that each cell  
463 experienced a change in cropland or pastureland extent and then used GLMs to estimate the



464 magnitude of this change. Because drivers of cropland and pastureland expansion differ by  
465 region (Supplementary Data 3-6), we fitted separate models for each IUCN region<sup>77</sup> and for  
466 cropland and pastureland.

467 We *a priori* included the same explanatory variables for all models (although see  
468 Supplementary Table 4 for differences between cropland and pastureland models) and used  
469 cell-specific values for each explanatory variable.

470 Examining univariate relationships between explanatory and response variables showed non-  
471 linear relationships for some variables. We therefore log-transformed travel time and  
472 included quadratic effects for all variables except AES and presence/absence of a protected  
473 area. We also included country as a fixed effect in the model because differences in country-  
474 specific laws, policies, and demand for agricultural land affect the spatial pattern of cropland  
475 expansion. See Supplementary Information for more information on model fitting.

#### 476 *Probability of Change in Agricultural Extent*

477 Our first response variable was whether the proportion of cropland or pastureland in a cell  
478 increased, decreased, or remained constant from 2007 to 2012. To account for uncertainty in  
479 MODIS data, we classified cells as having a constant agricultural extent if the proportion of a  
480 cell under agricultural land cover changed by less than 0.025 from 2007 to 2012. We then  
481 used the R package {nnet}<sup>78</sup> to fit a multinomial regression model to estimate the probability  
482 a cell increased, decreased, or did not change in cropland or pastureland extent from 2007 to  
483 2012.

#### 484 *Magnitude of Change in Agricultural Extent*

485 Our second response variable was the magnitude of agricultural land cover change in a cell.  
486 We fitted separate GLMs to cells that experienced increases in agricultural land and those  
487 that experienced decreases. This resulted in three GLMs for each IUCN region: cropland

488 increases, cropland decreases, and pastureland increases. We did not fit models for  
489 pastureland decreases because we assume pastureland extent remains constant in each  
490 country. We fitted models using the `glm()` function in the {stats} package in R<sup>76</sup>, with a  
491 gamma error distribution and a log-link function to bound estimates between 0 and 1.

### 492 ***Modelling results and accuracy***

493 Model coefficients and accuracies are shown in Supplementary Table 5 and Supplementary  
494 Data 3-6. See Supplementary Information for more details on modeling testing, results and  
495 accuracy.

### 496 *Model Accuracy: Probability of Change in Agricultural Extent*

497 We assessed model accuracy by classifying cells as having expanded or contracted from  
498 2007-2012 based on the cell's most probabilistic modelled outcome. We then compared these  
499 classifications with actual changes over 2007-2012.

500 Model accuracy varied across regions, ranging from ~62.5% (Caribbean) to ~95% (North  
501 Africa) for cropland and 59% (Oceania) to 77% (South and Southeast Asia) (Supplementary  
502 Table 5) for pastureland. This compares with a 33% chance of randomly selecting the correct  
503 outcome. The lower accuracy of pastureland predictions is possibly due to MODIS data not  
504 differentiating between natural grasslands or savannas and artificial pastures<sup>18</sup>.

### 505 **Projecting agricultural land cover change**

506 We estimated the probability and magnitude of future agricultural land cover change for  
507 every cell using the coefficients from the fitted models. We extracted land cover data from  
508 MODIS for 2005 (estimated as the mean of 2004-2006) and 2010 (mean of 2009-2011),  
509 using 2010 as a baseline for our projections and calculating the change from 2005 to 2010 as  
510 an explanatory variable. We used the region-specific multinomial models to estimate the  
511 probability that each cell would experience an increase or decrease in cropland, then

512 estimated the magnitude of these increases or decreases using the GLMs. See Supplementary  
513 Information for more detail.

#### 514 *Cropland expansion*

515 To project future agricultural land cover, we then linked these estimated probabilities and  
516 magnitudes of land-cover change from the Land Allocation Model with the agricultural land  
517 demand estimated from the Land Demand Model (Supplementary Figure 1).

518 For countries with a projected increase in cropland demand, we randomly selected a single  
519 cell, based on the probability it would experience an increase in cropland extent (i.e. the  
520 output from the region-specific multinomial model), then increased the proportion of  
521 cropland in the chosen cell by the cell-specific amount estimated from the expansion GLMs.  
522 We updated the estimates from both parts of the model (because the area of cropland is a key  
523 predictor), reduced the country's five-year agricultural land demand target by the amount of  
524 expansion estimated for the cell, and repeated the process until the country's five-year target  
525 for cropland was met.

526 For countries projected to see a decrease in cropland, we used the same procedure, but using  
527 the probability of cells experiencing a decrease in cropland from the multinomial model, and  
528 the estimated magnitude of this decrease from the contraction GLMs.

#### 529 *Changes in pastureland*

530 Following recent trends in global pastureland<sup>63,79</sup> and the EAT-Lancet projections, we did not  
531 project changes in countries' areas of pastureland. However, we did allow cropland to expand  
532 into pastureland. This displaced pastureland was then reallocated within the country using the  
533 allocation process described above for crops, but using the region-specific models for  
534 pastureland, and additionally assuming pastureland cannot expand into cropland. To avoid  
535 overestimating future pastureland extent, we limit pastureland expansion to cells identified as

536 having livestock by Gridded Livestock of the World<sup>80</sup> in 2010. If pastureland extent could not  
537 expand adequately to meet the five-year target, we assumed that shortfalls were compensated  
538 by livestock intensification<sup>5,81</sup>.

#### 539 *Adjusting probabilities and the magnitude of changes*

540 Agriculture cannot expand into all regions and land cover classes, specifically into regions  
541 with very low growing degree days, and urban, rock and ice, barren ground, and water land-  
542 cover classes. We therefore assumed that agriculture could not expand into certain cells based  
543 on their land cover type and climatic conditions, and further capped the potential amount of  
544 agricultural land based on the proportion of each cell that is suitable for agriculture. See  
545 “Input data for models” and “Adjusting probabilities and the magnitude of changes” in  
546 Supplementary Methods for details.

#### 547 *Consistency of projections*

548 Because the land allocation model is probabilistic, we repeated it 25 times, calculating the  
549 mean and standard deviation of the extent of cropland and pasture in each cell for each five-  
550 year time period. The allocation model produced consistent projections (Supplementary  
551 Figure 3) and we therefore use the mean value in our analyses. The median global coefficient  
552 of variation (standard deviation / mean) in 2050 was 0.26 for cropland and <0.001 for  
553 pastureland (Supplementary Figure 4), indicating variation in agricultural extent was small  
554 relative to estimated mean agricultural extent.

#### 555 *Potential impacts of climate change on agricultural land*

556 We did not include the potential impact of climate change on AES or agricultural yields in  
557 our models. Doing so would be hampered by a lack of consensus of how climate change  
558 might affect AES and crop yields, and would rely on a large number of untestable  
559 assumptions over farmer and policy responses to environmental change. However, the

560 flexibility and adaptability of our approach allows for the easy inclusion of climate change  
561 impacts in the future. This can be done by adjusting future yield projections based on local  
562 conditions and adaptive capabilities, or by adjusting future AES to capture how changing  
563 climates might affect the relative suitability of different regions. See Supplementary  
564 Information for a longer discussion of how climate change might affect future patterns of  
565 agricultural land cover change.

## 566 **Biodiversity Model**

567

### 568 *Area of habitat in 2010*

569 Maps of suitable habitat (referred to as Area of Habitat, AOH<sup>21</sup>) were produced for 4,003  
570 amphibians, 10,895 birds, and 4,961 mammal species<sup>21-24</sup>. These maps were originally  
571 developed at 300 x 300m resolution through deductive habitat suitability models integrating  
572 species ranges with data on suitable land-cover and elevations<sup>21</sup>. These habitat models  
573 reliably predict species distribution over wide geographical and taxonomic extents at the  
574 1 km resolution<sup>23,24</sup>. Supplementary Figure 9 shows the species richness patterns created from  
575 the AOH maps.

### 576 *Species' habitat tolerances*

577 We used IUCN data to define whether species are able to survive in agricultural land<sup>4</sup>. For  
578 each species, we recorded if habitats were “suitable” or “marginal” and took the maximum  
579 value of all habitats that qualify as either cropland or pastureland. i.e. if a species has “Arable  
580 Land” as “marginal” and “Plantations” as “suitable”, we defined cropland as “suitable” for  
581 the species. See Supplementary Information for a longer description on species habitat  
582 tolerances.

583 ***Current Area of Habitat***

584 We next estimated the global area of suitable habitat for each species in 2010. We first  
585 calculated the overlap between each species' suitable habitat and current cropland and  
586 pastureland (from MODIS data) and subtracted the area of agricultural land from the habitat  
587 maps, adjusting for suitability of cropland or pastureland: we assigned "suitable", "marginal",  
588 and "unsuitable" habitats a value of 0, .5, and 1, respectively, and multiplied this value by the  
589 overlap between habitat and agriculture in each cell. Thus, the value in each cell indicates the  
590 proportion of the cell suitable for a species. We then summed this value to estimate of area of  
591 suitable habitat in 2010. See Supplementary Information for more detail on how current area  
592 of habitat was calculated.

593 **Biodiversity Projections**

594 We estimated future changes in the 2010 area of suitable habitat for 19,859 species of  
595 terrestrial amphibians, birds, and mammals, repeating the process described above for each  
596 five-year time period from 2010 to 2050. We assumed species were unable to recolonise  
597 areas where agricultural land was abandoned to provide conservative estimates of  
598 biodiversity gains from agricultural abandonment. Altering this assumption such that species  
599 are able to colonise abandoned agricultural areas (as is often observed in long-term  
600 dynamics<sup>82</sup>) has little overall impact on our results: with recolonisation allowed, 17.8% of  
601 species were projected to see their area of habitat area increase, compared to 6.1% without  
602 recolonisation, and the mean change in habitat area for these species increased from 1.2% to  
603 2.2% (Supplementary Data 1). Across all species, mean changes were even smaller, from a  
604 mean loss of 5.8% to a mean loss of 5.3% with recolonisation. Species for which agricultural  
605 land is suitable could see increases in area of habitat as cropland and pastureland expand, or  
606 as pastureland is converted into cropland.

607 ***Projecting changes under alternative scenarios***

608 We repeated the process above for each of the five alternative scenarios and calculated both  
609 the absolute changes in habitat area, as well as the difference between Business-As-Usual and  
610 the alternatives.

611 **Data and materials availability:**

612 Data are available at <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.jq2bvq87m> and from the  
613 corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

614 **Code availability:**

615 Code used is available at <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.jq2bvq87m>.

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