

**Title:** Business as usual will commit biodiversity to genetic erosion: parallels from climate change for proactive conservation

**Running title:** Committed genetic erosion and climate parallels

## **Contact Information**

Corresponding author: Robyn E. Shaw, [robyn.shaw@canberra.edu.au](mailto:robyn.shaw@canberra.edu.au)

## **Authors**

Robyn E. Shaw<sup>1</sup>, Carole P. Elliott<sup>2</sup>, Joachim Mergeay<sup>3,4</sup>, Gernot Segelbacher<sup>5</sup>, Robert Blasiak<sup>6</sup>, David J. Coates<sup>2,7</sup>, Jessica M. da Silva<sup>8,9</sup>, Katherine A. Farquharson<sup>10,11</sup>, Sean Hoban<sup>12,13</sup>, Albert Norström<sup>6,14</sup>, Kym Ottewell<sup>2</sup>, Sibelle T. Vilaça<sup>15</sup>, Peter Bridgewater<sup>16</sup>, Ancuta Fedorca<sup>17</sup>, Christina Hvilsom<sup>18</sup>, T. Hefin Jones<sup>19</sup>, Francine Kershaw<sup>20</sup>, Sarah Kirkpatrick<sup>21,22</sup>, Linda Laikre<sup>23</sup>, Anna J. MacDonald<sup>24</sup>, Alicia Mastretta-Yanes<sup>25</sup>, Mariah Meek<sup>26</sup>, Cinnamon Mittan-Moreau<sup>27</sup>, Isa-Rita M. Russo<sup>19</sup>, Catherine E. Grueber<sup>10</sup>

## **Institutional affiliations**

1. Centre for Conservation Ecology and Genomics, University of Canberra, Canberra, Australian Capital Territory, Australia.
2. Biodiversity and Conservation Science, Department of Biodiversity, Conservation and Attractions, Kensington, Western Australia, Australia.
3. Research Institute for Nature and Forest, Belgium.
4. Ecology, Evolution and conservation, KU Leuven, Belgium.

- 24 5. Wildlife Ecology and Management, University Freiburg, Germany.
- 25 6. Stockholm Resilience Centre, Stockholm University, Stockholm, Sweden.
- 26 7. School of Biological Sciences, The University of Western Australia, Crawley, Western Australia, Australia.
- 27 8. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Kirstenbosch Research Centre, Newlands, Cape Town, South
- 28 Africa.
- 29 9. Centre for Ecological Genomics and Wildlife Conservation, Department of Zoology, University of
- 30 Johannesburg, Auckland Park, Johannesburg, South Africa.
- 31 10. School of Life and Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Science, The University of Sydney, Camperdown, New
- 32 South Wales, Australia.
- 33 11. Koala Conservation Australia, Port Macquarie, New South Wales, Australia.
- 34 12. The Morton Arboretum, Lisle, USA.
- 35 13. The University of Chicago, Chicago, USA.
- 36 14. Future Earth Secretariat, Stockholm, Sweden.
- 37 15. Vale Institute of Technology, Belém, PA, Brazil.
- 38 16. Institute for Applied Ecology, University of Canberra, Australia.
- 39 17. National Institute for Research and Development in Forestry, Romania.
- 40 18. Globe Institute, University of Copenhagen, Denmark.
- 41 19. School of Biosciences, Sir Martin Evans Building, Cardiff University, Wales, United Kingdom.
- 42 20. Natural Resources Defense Council, 40 W. 20th St., New York, NY, USA.
- 43 21. ARC Centre of Excellence for 21st Century Weather, Australian National University, Acton, Canberra,
- 44 Australia.
- 45 22. Fenner School of Environment and Society Australian National University, Acton, Canberra, Australia.
- 46 23. Department of Zoology, Stockholm University, Sweden.
- 47 24. Australian Antarctic Division, Department of Climate Change, Energy, the Environment and Water, Kingston,
- 48 Tasmania, Australia.
- 49 25. Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, Richmond, United Kingdom.
- 50 26. The Wilderness Society, Bozeman, MT, USA.
- 51 27. Michigan State University, Kellogg Biological Station, Hickory Corners, MI, USA.

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## 53 **Abstract**

54 Biodiversity and climate resilience are tightly linked. Genetic diversity enables species to adapt  
55 in a rapidly changing world, yet its loss (genetic erosion) remains the least visible dimension of  
56 the biodiversity crisis. Although climate science has long recognised that past emissions can lock  
57 in future climate impacts (“committed climate change”), the idea that biodiversity also faces  
58 future, lagged losses is less embedded in policy and public discourse. Past and ongoing habitat  
59 loss, fragmentation, and population declines have, however, already committed many species to  
60 future genetic erosion, with losses that may be undetectable today being capable of precipitating  
61 species extinctions and ecosystem collapse. To highlight the urgency of this issue, we  
62 conceptualise “committed genetic erosion” using four climate science parallels. First, just as the  
63 climate system is showing clear signals of change, genetic erosion is already occurring across  
64 regions and taxa, including non-threatened species. Second, like inertia in the climate system,  
65 biological inertia creates time lags between demographic decline and genetic erosion, effectively  
66 locking in further loss under business as usual. Third, just as climate science relies on indicators  
67 and forecasting tools, genetic indicators and forward-looking simulations can identify risk,  
68 quantify committed genetic erosion, and project future trajectories under alternative management  
69 pathways. Fourth, both the climate and biodiversity crises require ambitious action that addresses  
70 root causes. Proactively maintaining large, connected populations, and enabling carefully  
71 designed genetic rescue, provide proven, effective interventions for maintaining species’  
72 resilience, unlike reactive strategies or speculative technological fixes. Because genetic inertia  
73 operates locally, the lag period offers a critical window for intervention. This is a strategic

advantage we cannot afford to miss: acting early and placing genetic diversity at the centre of biodiversity management can safeguard the adaptive potential of life on Earth.

## **Keywords**

Adaptive capacity, biodiversity crisis, biodiversity policy, climate crisis, climate policy, extinction debt, extinction vortex, fragmentation, genetic rescue, tipping points

## **Introduction: Biodiversity and climate, two interlinked crises**

A rapidly changing world is increasing the need for resilient species that can adapt to new environments. Climate change and biosphere integrity, encompassing genetic diversity, are recognised as key dimensions of planetary stability, and current trends indicate that both are operating beyond safe limits for humanity (Richardson et al., 2023). Genetic diversity provides the foundation for adaptive capacity, enabling species and the ecosystems they comprise to persist through change. Yet despite being highlighted for decades (Frankel, 1974), genetic diversity remains the least visible dimension in biodiversity policy and public discourse, and is the domain most recently integrated into global biodiversity frameworks. For example, the United Nations (UN) Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) Kunming-Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework (GBF) now explicitly includes maintaining the adaptive potential of all species' populations as part of its goals and targets (Convention on Biological Diversity, 2022), marking unprecedented political recognition of genetic processes in nature.

Recognition of the importance of genetic diversity has come after decades of addressing global environmental change through separate climate and biodiversity agendas (Pettorelli et al., 2021; Richardson et al., 2023). The UN CBD and the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change

96 (UNFCCC) were signed in 1992 as sister conventions (ratified in 1993 and 1994, respectively,  
97 ipbes.net). Yet, their trajectories have diverged. The UNFCCC gained momentum through strong  
98 scientific leadership (e.g., Bolin, 1991) and a clear global narrative shaped by the  
99 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). In contrast, scientific input into biodiversity  
100 policy evolved more slowly through the CBD Subsidiary Body on Scientific, Technical and  
101 Technological Advice (SBSTTA; Koetz et al., 2008; Laikre et al., 2008), and later through the  
102 Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES;  
103 established 2012, first global assessment 2019), which has broadened the information available to  
104 the CBD. This imbalance has contributed to less public attention and weaker implementation of  
105 biodiversity policy than of climate policy (Mace et al., 2018; Pörtner et al., 2021). Today, calls to  
106 enhance coherence among these frameworks, and recent collaborations between IPBES and the  
107 IPCC, signal renewed recognition that the solutions to climate and biodiversity loss are  
108 inseparable (IPBES, 2024; Pörtner et al., 2021).

109 Climate science offers important lessons for biodiversity policy, including the mechanistic  
110 concept of commitment: the idea that past emissions and the inertia of the Earth system  
111 predetermine aspects of future change. This does not mean that global temperature will keep  
112 rising indefinitely if emissions cease; rather, it refers to impacts already locked in by past  
113 warming, such as ongoing sea level rise, ice-sheet melt, and thawing permafrost (Abram et al.,  
114 2025; IPCC, 2023; Schuur et al., 2015). Components of the climate system are also thought to  
115 include critical thresholds that, if breached, would trigger large, irreversible changes (Armstrong  
116 McKay et al., 2022). Whether “committed climate change” will force the Earth system beyond  
117 these tipping points is the subject of intense concern and scholarship (Steffen et al., 2018).

A clear parallel exists for biodiversity. Habitat loss, fragmentation, and over-exploitation have driven elevated extinction rates and reduced many remaining species to small, isolated populations (Pimm et al., 2014; Ralls et al., 2018). Persistent small population sizes set in motion an extinction vortex: a reinforcing cycle of genetic loss and population decline (Figure 1; Gilpin & Soulé, 1986). In this feedback loop, stochastic effects (genetic drift) and inbreeding can result in an accumulation of harmful mutations and lowered individual reproductive fitness and survival (inbreeding depression), in turn driving further declines in population size. Genetic diversity can continue to erode even after threats are mitigated or population numbers appear stable (Figure 1 – maintenance trajectory; Gargiulo et al., 2025; Mualim et al., 2025; Pinto et al., 2024). Indeed, even if a population grows in size, some life-history traits (e.g., long generation length) create biological inertia, producing a lag in which past impacts continue to define the future state of populations long after disturbance (Gargiulo et al., 2025; Kurland et al., 2023). Over generations, these processes can intensify, leading to irreversible loss of genetic variation and, ultimately, species extinction (Frankham et al., 2017). This “genetic extinction debt” represents the first stage of a broader extinction trajectory, reflecting similar time-lagged dynamics that underlie “extinction debt”: situations in which species are likely to go extinct in the future because environmental conditions can no longer support long-term persistence (Hanski & Ovaskainen, 2002; Tilman et al., 1994).

The concept of committed climate change has mobilised consensus and action by underscoring a critical insight: delayed action locks in future impacts. Therefore, to motivate policy discussions and communicate urgency in the biodiversity sphere, we propose the term “committed genetic erosion” to describe the future loss of genetic diversity already set in motion by past demographic and landscape change. Like committed climate change, committed genetic erosion arises from

inertia and time lags, rather than inevitable global outcomes (Gargiulo et al., 2025); however, it differs from the climate concept in two critical respects. Climate inertia locks in regional to global impacts that are largely irreversible on human timescales (King et al., 2024; Perkins-Kirkpatrick et al., 2025), whereas genetic inertia operates at the local scale and can, to a certain degree, still be altered through timely intervention (Box 1). These attributes offer a window of opportunity: targeted interventions can often attenuate the realisation of committed genetic erosion. In this sense, the outcomes of ambitious action for biodiversity can be more immediate and tangible than in climate systems. This tractability is a strategic advantage that conservation policy and planning must now embrace.

Here we use climate science as a scaffold to re-frame conservation of genetic diversity and explore the idea of committed genetic erosion through four parallels: (1) multiple lines of evidence show change is already occurring; (2) time lags mean that further change is committed under business as usual; (3) we can measure, track, and forecast risk to guide early action; and (4) proactive measures are needed that address root causes. The need for action is supported by strong evidence, broad consensus, and increasingly sobering predictions for the future (Exposito-Alonso et al., 2022; Gargiulo et al., 2025; Hoban et al., 2021; Shaw et al., 2025). Business as usual, primarily reactive conservation (acting only after loss is observed; Figure 1), could lead to a future of ongoing genetic loss that cascades into species extinction, triggering broader biodiversity collapse. By recognising the scale of this challenge and the importance of early action, we hope to catalyse the long-called-for paradigm shift in conservation practice (Ralls et al., 2018), placing genetic diversity at the core of biodiversity conservation strategies.

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163 **Parallel 1: Change is happening now**

164 Human-caused climate change is now undeniable. Human activities have unequivocally warmed  
165 the planet, with the long-term global surface temperature trend now estimated at 1.34–1.41 °C  
166 above the 1850–1900 baseline (WMO, 2025). Continued greenhouse gas emissions are driving  
167 widespread and rapid changes across the atmosphere, ocean, cryosphere, and biosphere, and  
168 climate change is influencing weather and climate extremes in every region of the world (IPCC,  
169 2023).

170 Like climate change, multiple lines of evidence show that major genetic erosion of species is  
171 underway. This is true for a wide range of taxa and regions, even over just a few generations, and  
172 even for species not currently considered threatened (Mastretta-Yanes et al., 2024; Schmidt et al.,  
173 2023; Shaw et al., 2025). This trend aligns with recent studies on North American birds and  
174 mammals (Schmidt et al., 2020), global plant populations (González et al., 2020), and global  
175 predictions suggesting more than 10 % of genetic diversity may already be lost (Exposito-Alonso  
176 et al., 2022). The widespread signal of genetic erosion, even over short time frames, suggests that  
177 substantial population size declines are driving this loss.

178 Shaw et al. (2025) found that genetic diversity loss was most pronounced where land use change,  
179 disease, abiotic disturbances (e.g., wildfire, floods), and harvesting or harassment (e.g., hunting,  
180 logging, stressing) occurred. Many species now persist in small, fragmented populations  
181 (Frankham, 2022). These conditions are expected to erode genome-wide diversity and increase  
182 inbreeding (Soulé, 1980); predictions well-supported by experimental data (Montgomery et al.,  
183 2000; Rich et al., 1979), and real-world observations (e.g., Figure 2; Hoelzel et al., 2024; Ralls et



al., 2018). A recent global assessment of genetic indicators across 5,271 populations also found that while the majority of species maintain most of their historic populations (for now), for 58 % of species assessed, all populations were too small to sustain genetic diversity over time; thus reducing their adaptive capacity (Mastretta-Yanes et al., 2024). Massive population losses could follow in the near-term, even triggering extinction vortices for many taxa (Figure 1; Gilpin & Soulé, 1986).

Human-induced changes can create conditions for rapid evolutionary responses (IPBES, 2019), but the capacity for such adaptation depends largely on existing (standing) genetic variation (Allendorf et al., 2024; Mergeay, 2024). The kelp (*Ecklonia radiata*) forests of Western Australia, where the interdisciplinary study of marine heatwaves emerged (e.g., Hobday et al., 2016), provides a well-documented example. In 2011, a marine heatwave caused widespread kelp canopy loss. Populations with higher genetic diversity were more likely to persist through the event, while low-diversity stands collapsed (Wernberg et al., 2018). In the following years, recovery was aided by recolonisation from nearby forests, with high connectivity enabling the gene flow needed to maintain diversity and support adaptation to warming conditions (Vranken et al., 2025). These studies show that genetic diversity and gene flow are essential for persistence and resilience under accelerating change. Genetic diversity thus comprises the within-species component of “response diversity”, a key aspect of ecological resilience that reflects the capacity of populations to respond differently to environmental change (Nadeau & Urban, 2019; Walker et al., 2023). Managing diversity and connectivity is central to maintaining such flexibility and is a cornerstone of “resilience thinking” in ecosystem management (Biggs et al., 2012). Thus, conserving genetic diversity is fundamental to conserving species and ecosystems, and ensuring their long-term resilience (Figure 1). Because the recovery of diversity through mutation often

requires hundreds or thousands of generations (Lande & Barrowclough, 1987), preventing genetic erosion is critical (Figure 2).

## **Parallel 2: Change will continue under business as usual**

Many human-driven climate change impacts are locked in for decades to millennia, even under rapid emissions reduction scenarios (Abrams et al., 2023; IPCC, 2023). Because of the thermal inertia of the climate system, global temperatures are expected to continue rising for several decades even if greenhouse gas concentrations were stabilised today (Abrams et al., 2023). Some scenarios even involve a temporary “overshoot”, where temperatures exceed 1.5–2 °C before later declining through mitigation, yet many ecosystems will not return to their prior states once thresholds are crossed (Abrams et al., 2023; Armstrong McKay et al., 2022). Under current national commitments (business as usual), critical thresholds for several major tipping elements are likely to be crossed this century, including the loss of Greenland and West Antarctic ice sheets, the Amazon rainforest, permafrost carbon stores, and tropical coral reefs (Abram et al., 2025; Abrams et al., 2023; Armstrong McKay et al., 2022; IPCC, 2023; Steffen et al., 2018). Once these thresholds are transgressed, self-reinforcing feedbacks could drive cascading and irreversible impacts (Armstrong McKay et al., 2022; IPCC, 2023; Schuur et al., 2015; Wunderling et al., 2023).

Similar lagged responses also occur in biological systems, including in population-level genetic processes. The effective population size ( $N_e$ ) is the genetic analogue of census size ( $N_c$ ); where  $N_c$  shapes the ecological dynamics of a population,  $N_e$  captures its evolutionary dimensions, determining the strength of genetic drift and the resulting rates of inbreeding accumulation and

genetic diversity loss (Waples, 2025). Theoretical models predict that the time it takes for genetic diversity loss to manifest fully after a demographic decline is on the order of  $2N_e$  generations (Crow & Aoki, 1984). For many populations and species, this corresponds to hundreds to thousands of generations. This means that genetic erosion may go undetected long after populations begin to decline, potentially giving the false impression that genetic diversity is stable (Lande, 1988). Global genetic diversity losses of 13–22 % have been estimated relative to a recent (~50-year) baseline, and long-term losses are forecast to reach 41–76 %, even if population numbers stabilise (Mualim et al., 2025).

Species with large populations and broad distributions can hold a reservoir of genetic diversity that masks local losses, and seed banks and dormant life stages can retain genetic signatures of past conditions (Plue et al., 2017; Staude et al., 2020). For example, genetic diversity was apparently maintained over time in taxa with historically large and/or widely distributed populations, such as insects (including bees and flies), ray-finned fishes (pelagic and migratory), and dicotyledonous plants (Shaw et al. 2025). But these groups may still be at risk - now or in the future - if large demographic changes occur. Similarly, in long-lived species, even substantial risk of genetic erosion may not be detectable over relatively short-term sampling periods (Gargiulo et al., 2025), potentially leading to underestimates of extinction risk.

These lagged genetic responses mirror climate dynamics, where gradual change can culminate in abrupt, often irreversible shifts. As resilience declines, stressors may tip an already vulnerable system into collapse. For example, long-term climatic “presses” (e.g., gradual warming or drying) interacting with short-term “pulses” (e.g., droughts or fires) can trigger abrupt transitions, as seen in population collapses and regime shifts worldwide (Biggs et al., 2018; Harris et al., 2018).

Similar dynamics may have contributed to the extinction of the woolly mammoth (*Mammuthus*

*primigenius*) on Wrangel Island, which lacked human occupation (Dehasque et al., 2024).

Ancient DNA revealed a severe population bottleneck followed by demographic recovery, but eventual collapse. Hundreds of generations of inbreeding and the accumulation of mildly deleterious mutations may have left the population close to a tipping point (Dehasque et al., 2024). Such processes also occur in agriculture, where selective breeding reduces genetic diversity and heightens disease vulnerability, as seen in the devastating effects of southern corn leaf blight on maize in the USA (Strange & Scott, 2005).

The consequences of genetic erosion can also feed back into, and exacerbate, climate and ecosystem processes. Increasing evidence shows that transgressing key planetary boundaries, whether related to climate change or to the wider biosphere, can amplify risks across domains (Richardson et al., 2023). Genetic diversity is a key component of biosphere function, and its erosion can weaken both ecological and climate resilience. For example, black spruce (*Picea mariana*) is projected to experience slower growth due to warming, threatening its carbon sequestration capacity. Genetic diversity may enable local adaptation to these conditions (Robert et al., 2024), but loss of this adaptive capacity may have cascading effects for carbon sequestration and climate dynamics.

While some committed climate change impacts will play out over centuries to millennia, giving society the opportunity to plan and adapt, others are likely in the coming decades (Abrams et al., 2023; IPCC, 2023). Similarly, committed genetic erosion represents an imminent and compounding hazard (Exposito-Alonso et al., 2022; Shaw et al., 2025). Acting early and within this lag period, can prevent irreversible losses of adaptive potential before they cascade into species extinctions, disruptions to agriculture, ecosystem collapse, and broader climate instability.

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### 276 **Parallel 3: We can forecast risk to guide early action**

277 By the time genetic erosion is measurable, species are already at heightened risk of extinction,  
278 even if demographic recovery occurs (Figure 2). Once genetic variants (alleles) are lost from all  
279 populations, they are effectively irrecoverable on management timescales and long-term adaptive  
280 potential is permanently reduced (Allendorf et al., 2024; Lande & Barrowclough, 1987).

281 Preventing committed genetic erosion means identifying at-risk species *before* loss occurs, and  
282 intervening while genetic diversity can still be restored. Preventing further erosion once it has  
283 begun also remains an important and often necessary goal (Figure 1).

284 Detecting the warning signs of committed genetic erosion requires monitoring both genetic and  
285 demographic indicators. Ecological evidence, such as population decline, habitat fragmentation,  
286 or reduced dispersal, signals that genetic extinction debt is accumulating (O'Brien et al., 2022).  
287 Such trends are already reflected in major extinction-risk frameworks, including the IUCN Red  
288 List. However, a population's genetic diversity does not always align with Red List status  
289 (Mastretta-Yanes et al., 2024; McLaughlin et al., 2025; Schmidt et al., 2023). This mismatch may  
290 be consistent with the expected lag between population decline and detectable genetic erosion.

291 Where genetic or genomic data exist, genetic metrics (Box 1) can reveal reduced gene flow,  
292 bottlenecks, recent inbreeding or other early signals that genetic erosion is already underway,  
293 even when overall diversity appears superficially stable (Gargiulo et al., 2025; McLaughlin et al.,  
294 2025).

295 Correctly interpreting genetic statistics as rates of loss, and thus measures of risk, requires clear  
296 baselines. Without this, we risk accepting current, degraded conditions as the new norm

(“shifting-baseline syndrome”; Lotze & Worm, 2009; Pauly, 1995). Establishing consistent, globally comparable reference points is therefore critical for detecting the consequences of demographic stress early and enabling more proactive, targeted responses. Inspired by Essential Climate Variables (ECVs; GCOS, 2010), biodiversity scientists developed Essential Biodiversity Variables (EBVs; Pereira et al., 2013) to quantify and report biological change worldwide. In the genetic domain, EBVs formalise key population genetic measures (Hoban et al., 2022), translating heterogeneous datasets into comparable metrics and providing a common language for monitoring across species and regions. As with ECVs, some EBVs have been translated into simplified indicators, with clear thresholds for decision-makers. Genetic diversity indicators, such as the proportion of populations within a species that are sufficiently large to maintain genetic diversity ( $N_e > 500$ ), and the proportion of populations maintained (Hoban et al., 2021), provide a simple yet powerful way to track genetic extinction debt and the extent to which populations have already fallen below levels needed to sustain adaptive potential. These indicators are already being implemented in policy under the CBD (Convention on Biological Diversity, 2022) and the EU Habitats Directive (O’Brien et al., 2025), although genetic diversity remains absent from major restoration frameworks (Ngeve, 2025). Although thresholds in other EBVs such as heterozygosity and habitat fragmentation have been proposed and are the focus of active discussion (Andersson et al., 2022; Kurland et al., 2024), these are not yet established as critical tipping points and remain less operationalised than  $N_e$  thresholds. Further work to formalise these thresholds is urgently needed.

Forecasting future genetic change is equally vital for guiding proactive interventions. Simulations underpinned by physical climate models have been critical in climate science, projecting likely outcomes under different emissions and socio-economic scenarios (IPCC, 2023). In population

genetics, computational simulations serve a similar purpose: they help characterise tipping points, lags, and thresholds for genetic erosion, and forecast how demographic trends and landscape change will influence future diversity (Hoban, 2014; Pinto et al., 2024). These tools also enable biodiversity managers to evaluate the consequences of various strategic options (e.g., population translocations) before losses occur, enabling them to identify when populations are likely to fall below viable thresholds, where gene flow must be maintained, and where early intervention can prevent committed genetic erosion.

Forecasting is critical in landscapes where economic development and biodiversity conservation are in direct tension, facilitating decisions on whether natural populations remain viable or are pushed toward irreversible genetic decline through disturbance. Examples include the Pilbara region of Western Australia, where mining removes cave roosts of threatened bat populations and fragments the roost network needed to maintain gene flow (Umbrello et al., 2022), and Brazil's Atlantic Forest, where agriculture, logging, and urban expansion fragment habitats (Galán-Acedo et al., 2023). Simulations built to model such systems can help determine which areas or corridors must remain intact to avoid committed genetic erosion, and where limited development may still be compatible with maintaining connectivity (e.g., Dutcher et al., 2023; Haller & Messer, 2023). In many cases, avoiding genetic decline will require leaving some land or resources unexploited, analogous to the climate concept of “unburnable carbon”, in which meeting climate targets requires leaving fossil-fuel reserves untapped (Griffin et al., 2015; Pye et al., 2020). Like these fuel reserves, land set aside for biodiversity objectives would become what climate governance terms a “stranded asset”: economically valuable on paper, but unusable in practice without committing populations to long-term genetic decline (Caldecott et al., 2021; Österblom & Blasiak, 2021; Ploeg & Rezai, 2020). As in climate governance, implementing

these limits depends on political will and overcoming resistance from actors who stand to lose economically, while explicitly addressing trade-offs to prevent conflict and ensure equitable outcomes (Ferns & Amaeshi, 2021; Meyfroidt et al., 2022; Wright & Nyberg, 2024).

#### **Parallel 4: We need proactive and ambitious action now**

Just as climate and biological systems exhibit inertia, so too do political, institutional, and economic systems. Overcoming societal inertia requires systemic change in governance and finance, not just scientific clarity, as climate governance has shown. Mechanisms such as the Task Force on Climate-Related Financial Disclosures (TCFD) and the Science-Based Targets Initiative (SBTi) evolved from voluntary commitments into widely adopted frameworks that now inform mandatory reporting and incentivise corporate leadership (Ben-Amar et al., 2024). Biodiversity reporting is beginning to follow suit through initiatives such as the Nature Positive Initiative, the Task Force on Nature-related Financial Disclosures (TNFD), and the Global Reporting Initiative's biodiversity standard, but genetic diversity remains largely absent from these frameworks (O'Brien et al., 2025). Nevertheless, promising examples exist in the private sector of companies recognising the value of assessing and maintaining genetic diversity (e.g., commercial wild salmon fisheries; Connors et al., 2022).

Challenges do, however, remain. Climate change is perceived as a global phenomenon with standardised metrics (e.g., tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub>), whereas biodiversity loss is inherently local, context-dependent, and lacks a universally accepted measurement unit (Wauchope et al., 2024). This imbalance contributes to “carbon tunnel vision”, where emissions dominate sustainability reporting while biodiversity metrics are overlooked (Jouffray et al., 2025), despite emerging



quantitative thresholds for ecosystem resilience. For example, when semi-natural habitat area falls below roughly 20–25 % (at a 1 km<sup>2</sup> scale), critical ecosystem functions collapse. Alarming, about two-thirds of agricultural and urban areas globally fall below this threshold (Mohamed et al., 2024). Genetic diversity offers a complementary and quantifiable dimension of resilience, providing standardised, scalable measures that link local biological processes to global monitoring and forecasting frameworks (Henry, 2025; Mastretta-Yanes et al., 2024). Embedding these metrics within global monitoring, finance, and policy systems is increasingly feasible, and supported by a growing number of tools and case studies (Hoban et al., 2021; Mastretta-Yanes et al., 2024).

Genetic diversity is declining across both threatened and non-threatened species (Mastretta-Yanes et al., 2024; Shaw et al., 2025), yet conservation policies and subsequent actions are often triggered only after a species' total population has declined to critical levels, typically in response to legal obligations or political pressure (Drechsler et al., 2011). This reflects a reactive mindset, intervening only once risk is clear, and far more difficult (or impossible) to reverse. Resilience science stresses that acting early, before thresholds are crossed, is far more effective (Folke et al., 2004). Furthermore, the costs associated with re-establishing depleted populations can be much higher than those required to maintain them above critical thresholds, despite the latter being needed over longer periods (Drechsler et al., 2011). Proactive management is therefore cost-effective and more likely to prevent irreversible loss.

The belief that emerging technologies can compensate for inaction can reinforce a reactive mindset and entrench the status quo, diverting attention from root causes and delaying meaningful change (Anderson & Peters, 2016; Gifford et al., 2018). Despite decades of warnings, the world continues to rely on technological promises such as large-scale carbon capture, which

the IPCC (2022) judges unlikely to deliver substantial emission reductions by 2030. If these technologies fail to perform as expected, society will be locked into a high-temperature trajectory (Anderson & Peters, 2016). Biodiversity conservation faces similar risks. Advances such as CRISPR and cloning cannot recreate the evolutionary potential lost through extinction, which relies on large, diverse, self-sustaining populations. De-extinction efforts inevitably begin with extremely low genetic diversity, exposing “resurrected” populations to a re-extinction vortex (Steeves et al., 2017). While these technologies may have legitimate applications in targeted management, they remain limited. The urgent need to reduce emissions and to protect and restore genetic diversity in existing species, will rest primarily on investment in existing, proven actions. Time lags offer a critical opportunity: the chance to intervene before losses become irreversible, and proactive management offers reason for hope (Figure 1). Because genetic diversity often declines more slowly than population size, detecting demographic problems and restoring populations before genetic erosion becomes committed, offers a window for action. For example, the Eastern North Pacific population of fin whales (*Balaenoptera physalus*) suffered a 99 % reduction in  $N_e$  during twentieth century whaling, yet retained relatively high diversity. This was likely because the bottleneck lasted about 70 years, a short period relative to the species’ long generation time (~25.9 years), corresponding to three generations (Nigenda-Morales et al., 2023). A moratorium on commercial whaling was implemented within this window for action, enabling demographic recovery before genetic erosion was committed.

Species and populations face many different kinds of genetic threats, and discriminating among these helps determine the most effective management actions (O’Brien et al., 2022). A global meta-analysis suggests that several interventions can stabilise or improve genetic diversity, including supplementation (Shaw et al., 2025). Supplementation spans a continuum from

facilitating natural gene flow via restored connectivity to more intensive translocations among isolated or captive populations to effect genetic rescue. Given how widespread habitat fragmentation has become, restoring gene flow is now essential in many systems (Frankham et al., 2017). Once approached with hesitantly, well-planned genetic rescue is increasingly recognised as a powerful tool for reversing inbreeding depression and restoring adaptive potential (Frankham et al., 2017; Hoffmann et al., 2021; Ralls et al., 2018). Such approaches also facilitate climate-resilient assisted gene flow, identifying and moving adaptive variation to help populations track rapidly changing environments (Meek et al., 2025). When implemented early in recovery planning and conservation management, these approaches are low-risk, relatively inexpensive, and capable of sustaining adaptive potential before genetic erosion becomes committed (da Silva et al., 2026; Fitzpatrick et al., 2023; Frankham et al., 2017; Ralls et al., 2018).

## **Conclusion**

Conserving genetic diversity is not a niche concern; it is central to long-term ecological resilience and must become a core component of biodiversity planning. Genetic erosion is widespread, can lag behind demographic losses, and becomes committed unless proactive steps are taken to maintain and restore the evolutionary processes that sustain life on Earth. Doing so requires a shift in thinking: from reacting only after genetic erosion is detected, to also proactively safeguarding the raw material of resilience before it disappears.

Drawing from climate science, the concept of committed genetic erosion underscores the urgency of action. Just as past greenhouse gas emissions have committed the planet to future climate

433 change impacts and potential tipping points, past and ongoing habitat loss, fragmentation, and  
434 other consequent impacts on population decline, have committed many species to future genetic  
435 erosion. The critical difference is that, unlike climate inertia, genetic inertia is tractable: erosion  
436 unfolds population by population and can be prevented if action occurs during the lag period. We  
437 cannot afford to miss this window for strategic intervention. Integrating genetic considerations  
438 into planning and policy early maximises the capacity for adaptation and recovery. To help  
439 achieve this, scientists, policymakers, practitioners, the private sector, and broader society all  
440 play a role in ensuring that genetic considerations are communicated clearly, embedded early in  
441 decisions, and underpinned by rigorous thresholds and terminology.

442 The solutions are well tested. In addition to monitoring, we must also apply genetic principles to  
443 management: ecological strategies that achieve genetic outcomes. Established conservation  
444 strategies, such as maintaining or improving connectivity, effecting carefully designed genetic  
445 rescue, and supporting large, viable populations, sustain the evolutionary processes that maintain  
446 genetic diversity. As such, they carry explicit genetic benefits that are too often overlooked.  
447 Recognising these genetic outcomes gives renewed urgency to implementing these strategies  
448 effectively. In much of the world, this will require applying genetic principles without direct  
449 genetic data, and prioritising large-scale actions such as habitat protection and restoration. By  
450 doing so, we intervene earlier in the extinction trajectory, acting before species are on the brink  
451 of extinction. These approaches align with major international biodiversity and development  
452 goals, supported by technical indicators that identify where losses are occurring, and which  
453 species are most at risk. Now, bold, resilience-focused biodiversity action that embeds genetic  
454 considerations into governance, finance, planning, and on-ground management is essential for  
455 maintaining adaptive potential in a rapidly changing world. The choices made today will shape

the evolutionary futures of species and the ecological systems on which we depend, for generations to come.

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## **Conflicts of Interest**

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## **Data Availability Statement**

No new data were generated or analysed in support of this article.

**Box 1: Signals of committed genetic erosion**

Measurable changes in a population's genetic diversity are rarely the earliest warning of risk. The first indications that genetic extinction debt is accumulating are habitat loss, fragmentation and demographic decline, detectable through field monitoring or even remotely via satellite imagery (Hoban et al., 2024). These ecological signals indicate that declines in **effective population size ( $N_e$ )** and subsequent **genetic erosion** are likely.

Genetic diversity analyses reveal erosion already underway. Because components of genetic diversity respond to perturbation at different rates (Nei et al., 1975), comprehensive analysis can help quantify the severity, timing and trajectory of committed genetic erosion and highlight where intervention is most urgent (Frankham et al., 2010; Hoban et al., 2024).

Like species richness and diversity in ecology (Hu et al., 2006), alpha-level genetic diversity is commonly summarised using **richness** (e.g., **allelic richness, AR**; **Watterson's theta,  $\theta_w$** ) and **evenness (gene diversity, also called expected heterozygosity,  $H_e$ ; nucleotide diversity,  $\pi$ )** metrics. Richness captures how many genetic variants (alleles) are present and is informative for long-term adaptive potential, while evenness reflects how allele frequencies are distributed and reflects short-term evolutionary responses (Allendorf et al., 2024; Caballero & García-Dorado, 2013; Mergeay, 2024).

While ongoing genetic monitoring is the gold standard, genetic erosion can also be detected from a single genetic snapshot. For example, following a population bottleneck, rare alleles are lost first, so richness declines rapidly. Evenness declines more slowly because it is

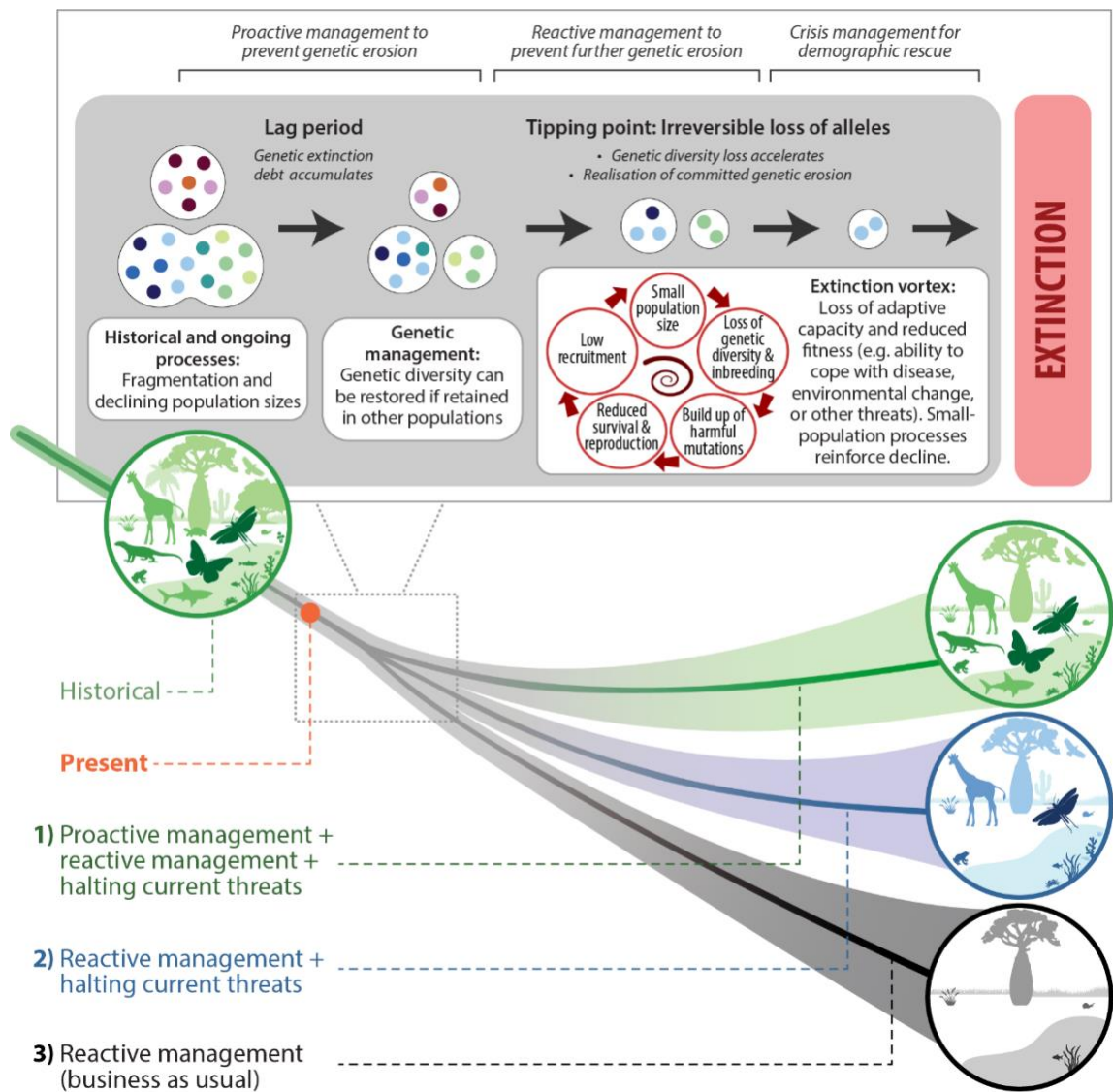
predominantly determined by common alleles. During or shortly after demographic decline, these properties manifest as a mismatch between metrics, indicating that the population is not at mutation–drift equilibrium (Cornuet & Luikart, 1996).

Reduced connectivity can generate similar mismatches: when gene flow drops below roughly one effective migrant per generation, subpopulations rapidly lose rare alleles even without detectable demographic decline (Broquet et al., 2010). This mismatch indicates a genetic extinction debt for evenness, as further loss of  $H_e$  or  $\pi$  is inevitable unless population size or connectivity increases. More generally, reduced gene flow increases genetic drift and inbreeding within each subpopulation, lowering  $N_e$  at the species level (Ryman et al., 2019). These non-equilibrium dynamics can unfold unevenly across a species’ range, especially if subpopulations are permanently lost (Kurland et al., 2023).

Tests for identifying genetic erosion from a single snapshot include Bottleneck (Cornuet & Luikart, 1996), Tajima’s  $D$  (Tajima, 1989), runs of homozygosity (ROH; Kardos et al., 2018), linkage disequilibrium (Santiago et al., 2025), or site-frequency spectrum analyses (Gutenkunst et al., 2009).

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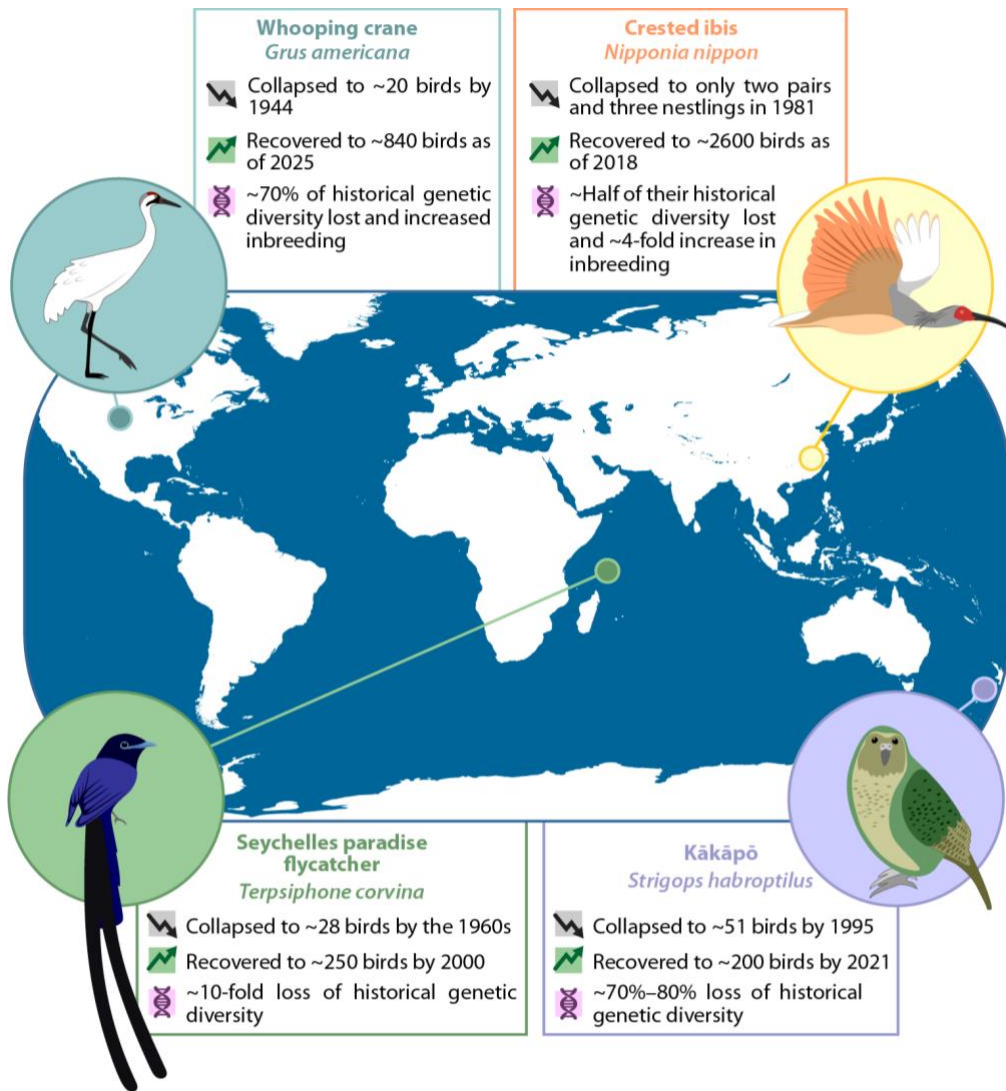
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**Figure 1. Conceptual diagram of biodiversity trajectories under alternative genetic management pathways.** The top panel illustrates the population-level timeline occurring within the strategic window for action (grey dotted box): the period in which we can intervene before the realisation of committed genetic erosion pushes many species toward extinction. Fragmentation and population decline initiate genetic erosion, causing some immediate loss, and resulting in a lag period in which genetic extinction debt accumulates. If genetic variants persist in nearby populations, diversity at the species level can be restored through early intervention,



such as by mixing populations (supplementation). After a tipping point, however, genetic erosion accelerates and becomes irreversible, reducing adaptive capacity and fitness, and reinforcing small-population processes in a feedback loop (the “extinction vortex”). As systems move through these stages, management shifts from proactive (preventing loss) to reactive (preventing further loss) and finally to crisis management. At this stage, saving the species becomes extremely difficult and/or costly, and extinction risk is elevated due to severely depleted genetic diversity, even if demographic recovery is achieved. These often unseen genetic processes underpin three potential biodiversity futures (bottom panel: represented by species diversity on the y-axis and time on the x-axis), including: (1, green) recovery: proactive intervention to maintain adaptive capacity before genetic erosion is measurable (e.g., restoring connectivity/gene flow and sustaining large, viable population sizes), combined with threat abatement and reactive responses where needed; (2, blue) maintenance: halting current threats (e.g., no further habitat loss) alongside reactive management, reducing, but not preventing, future biodiversity loss; and (3, black) losses under business as usual, where action is delayed until genetic erosion is measurable (reactive management), resulting in biodiversity declining towards extinction, with cascading losses across ecosystems.



**Figure 2. Global examples of realised committed genetic erosion in bird species - in all four cases substantial genetic erosion has occurred despite demographic recovery.** Historical baselines derived from 19th-century specimens reveal that four well-studied bird species (the whooping crane, crested ibis, Seychelles paradise flycatcher and kākāpō) have each lost substantial proportions of their historical genetic diversity following severe population declines. Conservation actions such as translocations, captive breeding, predator control and habitat protection were essential for securing or maintaining demographic recovery and, in several cases, preventing extinction of the species. However, these efforts occurred after committed genetic

511 erosion had been realised. The irreversible loss of genetic diversity means that these species now  
512 persist with reduced adaptive capacity and elevated long-term extinction risk. Demographic  
513 recovery is a genuine conservation success, but genetic erosion persists even after numbers  
514 rebound. *Data sources:* whooping crane: Fontseré et al., 2025; crested ibis: Feng et al., 2019;  
515 Seychelles paradise flycatcher: Femerling et al., 2023; kākāpō: Bergner et al., 2016; Dussex et  
516 al., 2021.

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