

The promise of U.S. private lands for reaching 21st century conservation targets

Melissa Chapman^a, Carl Boettiger^a, Justin Brashares^a

^a*Dept. of Environmental Science, Policy, and Management, University of California Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA*

Abstract

Coincident with an international movement to protect 30% of global land and sea over the next decade, the United States has committed to more than doubling its current protected land area by 2030. While federally-managed protected areas have been the cornerstone of area-based conservation in the United States and globally over the past century, such areas are both difficult to establish and have limited capacity to protect areas of highest value for biodiversity and carbon storage. Here we show that private land conservation in the form of conservation easements has been more effective than federal protected areas in targeting areas of high value for biodiversity and climate change mitigation. Specifically, protected private lands were more commonly in areas designated as high conservation priority, held significantly higher species richness than protected public lands and held more above ground carbon per unit area.

Keywords: 30x30, biodiversity, climate mitigation, conservation easements, conservation targets, protected areas

Introduction

Following another decade of accelerating biodiversity loss (1), the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) is promoting a post-2020 transnational agreement on biodiversity conservation. Largely coalesced around the promise of protecting 30% of the Earth's land and sea by 2030 ("30x30"), this agreement will influence the next decade of global conservation policies and biodiversity outcomes (2; 3; 4). In hopes of not repeating the shortcomings of past area-based conservation agreements (1), scientists and policymakers have emphasized modern definitions of area-based protection that recognize the importance of private and working land contributions to meeting biodiversity and climate mitigation goals (2; 5).

The United States is among the first countries to pass a legal mandate in response to early drafts of the post-2020 CBD biodiversity targets (4). In a 2021 Executive Order on "Tackling the Climate Crisis at Home and Abroad", the Biden administration committed to conserving 30% of United States lands and waters by the year 2030, with the broader goals of safeguarding food production and biodiversity while mitigating

20 climate change (Exec. Order No. 14008, 2021). With less than 15% of current US lands permanently
21 protected in areas managed for biodiversity (GAP2018), meeting this target will require an unprecedented
22 expansion of land protection over the next decade. While protected areas owned by federal agencies account
23 for the majority of protected land in the U.S., they are legally cumbersome to implement aside from those
24 established under the Antiquities Act (i.e., National Monuments). Moreover, despite the increasing prevalence
25 of spatial conservation planning and conservation prioritization (6; 7), several studies suggest protected areas
26 created to date overlap poorly with priority areas for biodiversity conservation (2; 8).

27 In an attempt to meet ambitious area-based targets while simultaneously reducing potential mismatches
28 between lands managed for biodiversity and biodiversity distributions themselves, post-2020 legislation and
29 proposed pathways to meeting the legislative targets in the U.S. have emphasized broader engagement with
30 private and working land. However, studies exploring the mismatch of protected areas and biodiversity have
31 largely ignored how other area-based conservation measures, such as private land conservation, align with
32 areas of high conservation priority (2; 8). Without a systematic understanding of the relative capacity of
33 private land conservation to target key biodiversity areas and opportunities for climate change mitigation,
34 it is difficult to assess if the emphasis on private lands is a well-informed policy direction for expanding
35 area-based conservation.

36 Private land protection measures, including private reserves, land trusts, and conservation easements,
37 have long contributed to land conservation in the United States despite representing only a small fraction
38 of the total land under protection (9). While private land conservation takes many forms, conservation
39 easements - voluntary legal agreements that permanently limit the uses of private land to protect conservation
40 values - have garnered particular interest from conservation initiatives in the U.S. and elsewhere, due to their
41 cost-efficacy and legal flexibility (10). While a large body of literature has examined drivers and impacts of
42 conservation easement adoption (11), management attributes(12), and efficacy (13), quantifying the value
43 of conservation easements for biodiversity at a national scale has been impeded by a lack of centralized
44 data on parcel delineations. Fortunately, new products such as the U.S. National Conservation Easements
45 Database (NCED; (14)) now provide opportunities to visualize and analyze the relative efficacy of private
46 land conservation measures in targeting areas of high conservation value.

47 Here, we used the national compilation of spatial data on conservation easements (NCED) to quantify
48 the value of existing U.S. easements for protecting biodiversity and securing carbon. Using the NCED
49 (14) alongside distributions of biodiversity priority areas (8), current species richness (15; 16), projected
50 species richness under climate change (17), and carbon sequestration in North America (18), we assessed the

51 conservation value of easements in the United States relative to federal protected areas and unprotected lands.
52 We also tested if protected areas and conservation easements created in the last 20 years (2001-2020) showed
53 increased targeting of priority areas for biodiversity conservation or climate mitigation. Taken together, our
54 analyses explore the potential of private lands to complement traditional protected area contributions to
55 meeting qualitative elements of 2030 conservation targets, such as climate change mitigation and climate
56 resilience.

57 **Methods**

58 *Data*

59 We acquired protected area and conservation easement delineations from the United States Protected Area
60 Database (PAD-US) (19). PAD-US compiles conservation easement data from the National Conservation
61 Easements (NCED) (14) which contains over 130,000 easements (an estimated 60% of all U.S. easements;
62 sensitivity analysis of results to missing data available in Supporting Information Figure S5). We restricted
63 our analysis of “protected areas” to land administered by public agencies (fee-owned) and managed for
64 biodiversity (GAP 1 and GAP 2; Table S1). Similarly, we include only conservation easements that are
65 managed for biodiversity (classified as GAP 1 or GAP 2) in the analysis of “protected” private land. Hereafter,
66 we refer to these two categories of land designations as simply “protected areas” and “conservation easements”.
67 Protected areas and conservation easements with invalid or missing geometries in the PAD-US dataset were
68 excluded from the study. Our final dataset included 2579 protected areas and 1297 conservation easements
69 managed under GAP 1 criteria (fully protected and allowing only for natural disturbances), and 33132
70 protected areas and 29351 conservation easements under GAP 2 criteria (fully protected and allowing for
71 management action) (Fig. 1A; Table S1).

72 We compared biodiversity and climate mitigation values in our set of GAP 1 and 2 protected areas and
73 conservation easements with those of all federally owned public lands and all lands held in private ownership.
74 For those analyses, we defined public lands as any land in the “fee-owned” PAD-US database (regardless of
75 GAP status). All other lands were considered “private”.

76 Biodiversity priority areas were delineated using land in the 10th percentile of biodiversity priority index
77 values in the United States (details on biodiversity priority indices can be found in (8)). Current species
78 richness was estimated by overlaying range maps from terrestrial vertebrates and freshwater fishes. We
79 acquired range maps for birds from BirdLife International (16), and for amphibians, reptiles, freshwater fish,
80 and mammals from the IUCN spatial database (15). To best assess current non-invasive species richness, we

81 excluded extinct and nonnative species when indicated in the IUCN or Birdlife data, as well as any parts of
82 species' ranges considered transitory or outside of the species native range (following methods in (8)). Each
83 species' range map was converted into a binary 5 km² raster of a given species distribution. Species richness
84 maps ultimately represented the count of species per taxa in a given raster cell. We checked the sensitivity
85 of results to richness resolution (1km-10km) and found no qualitative differences. While there are a number
86 of alternative methods for mapping species richness (e.g., 17), there is no evidence to suggest that range
87 maps would be systematically biased towards one given land protection measure over another.

88 We calculated future species richness using projected range distributions from Lawler et al. (2020) (17).
89 Future ranges were estimated for each species under three separate high emissions (RCP 8.5) climate change
90 scenarios (17). We approximated future richness as the number of species in a given pixel (10 km² resolution)
91 using the mean from all three climate scenarios. To assess climate change mitigation values of lands across
92 management types, we used harmonized vegetation-specific maps (300-m resolution) of both above and
93 belowground biomass (18).

94 *Analysis*

95 We calculated mean species richness values for current and future species distributions across public
96 and private management units in R (Supporting Information). Main figures represent overall differences in
97 mean species richness and carbon density (area-weighted means across all protected parcels). Differences in
98 mean richness values across individual protected areas and conservation easements were assessed using t-tests
99 (Supporting Information). We used propensity score matching to estimate the average marginal difference of
100 mean species richness between conservation easements and protected areas accounting for the confounding
101 effect of area of parcels and subnational governance (State) (Supporting Information) Mean above and below
102 ground carbon values per polygon were calculated in Google Earth Engine (20).

103 **Results**

104 *Conservation in key biodiversity areas*

105 Conservation easements managed for biodiversity (GAP 1 and GAP 2) account for a smaller total area
106 than equivalently managed federal protected areas (Fig. 1B). Additionally, conservation easements are on
107 average smaller per management unit than protected areas (Fig. 1C). Over the past 20 years, conservation
108 easements have increased in their rate of adoption relative to protected areas (Fig. 1D). While conservation

109 easements are typically smaller than protected areas, they are more likely to overlap with land identified as a
110 biodiversity priority (Fig. 1E).

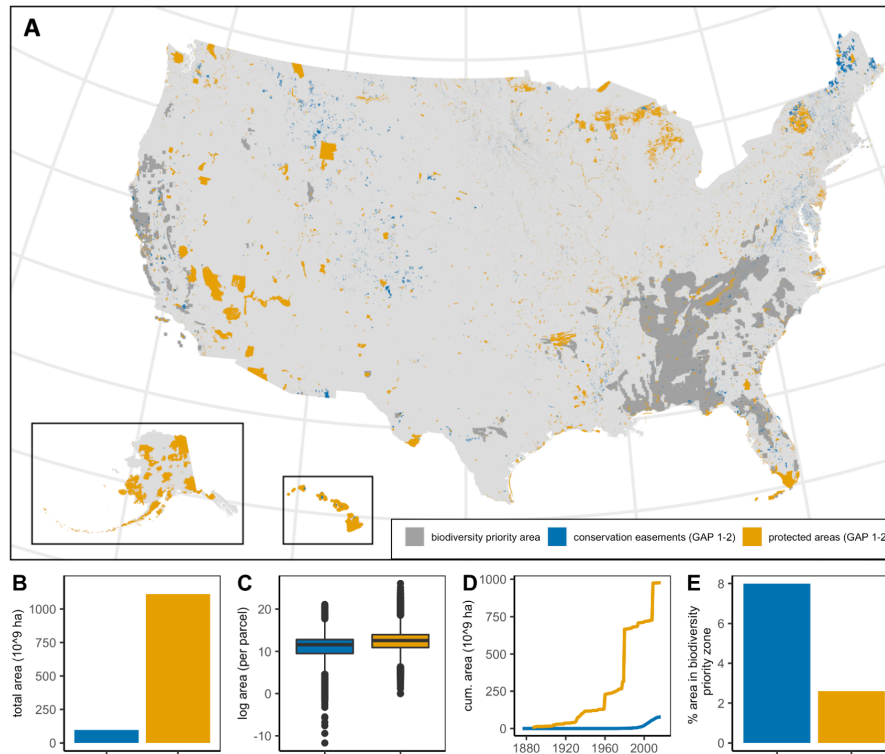


Figure 1: (A) Map showing 66359 GAP 1 and GAP 2 protected areas and conservation easements across the United States included in this study. Dark grey areas indicate areas in the top 10th percentile according to a conservation priority ranking (B) GAP 1 and 2 conservation easements account for a significantly smaller area of land managed for biodiversity in the United States and are (C) on average smaller per individual management boundary than protected areas. (D) While conservation easements have a long history of contributing to protection in the United States, the past two decades have seen a significant increase in the area under easements managed specifically for biodiversity. (E) A higher percentage of GAP 1-2 conservation easements are within conservation priority zones compared to GAP 1-2 protected areas.

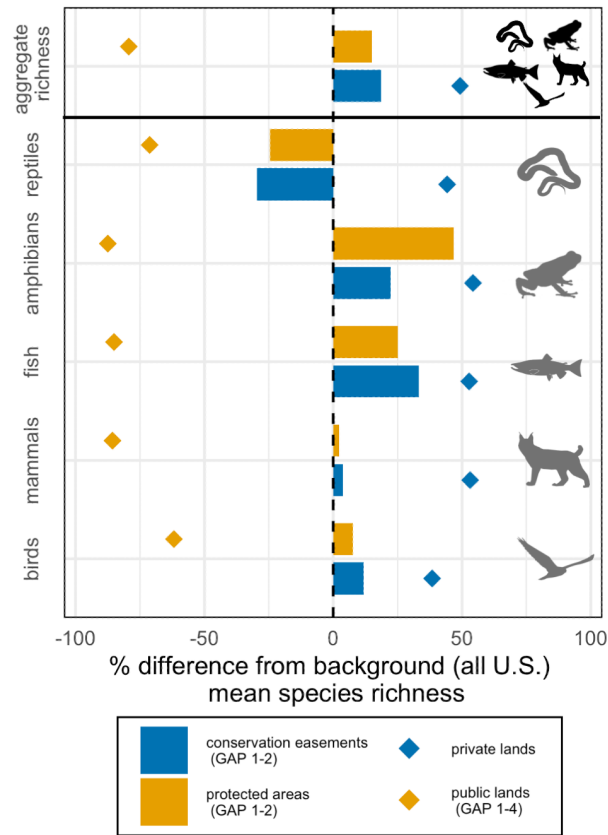


Figure 2: Private lands under conservation easement more effectively track areas of the United States with high species richness, particularly for fish, mammals, and birds. Plots show the percent difference of mean species richness in GAP 1 and 2 conservation easements and protected areas from background mean species richness values (for all land in the United States) and disaggregated by taxa. Orange points indicate percent mean difference from background values for current public areas GAP 1-4 (as a proxy for background “public” land) and blue points indicate all land that is not public (as a proxy for background “private land”).

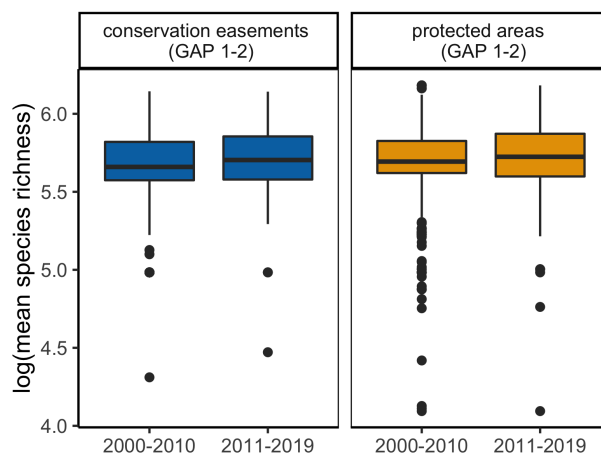


Figure 3: Distributions of protected areas and conservation easements relative to species richness metrics have remained constant over the past two decades despite international agreements on biodiversity targets (Aichi Biodiversity Targets) and increases in spatial conservation planning.

111 Both GAP 1 and 2 protected areas and conservation easements have higher mean species richness values
112 than background U.S. lands (all lands within U.S. borders), but lower mean richness values than all private
113 lands (estimated as all lands not included in PAD-US Fee GAP 1-4) (Fig. 2). Notably, GAP 1 and 2 easements
114 have higher mean species richness than GAP 1 and 2 protected areas overall (Fig. 2) and significantly high
115 mean species richness on a per parcel basis (Table S2). Even when matching protected areas and easements
116 based on parcel area and location, the difference in mean species richness values between protected areas
117 and easements remains significant (Table S3). This holds true across aggregate richness but is not true of
118 all taxa alone (Fig. 2; Table S2). Overall, public lands (GAP 1-4) have significantly lower richness values
119 across all taxa compared to private lands and compared to total background values across all U.S. lands.
120 This holds true for all taxa (Fig. 2). However, when looking only at vulnerable, endangered, and critically
121 endangered (CRENVU) species, as well as small range species, protected areas have higher mean richness
122 values compared to conservation easements (Supplemental information; Fig. S2). The patterns of private and
123 public land distributions relative to species richness distributions have remained relatively constant across
124 the past two decades (Fig. 3 and Fig. S1).

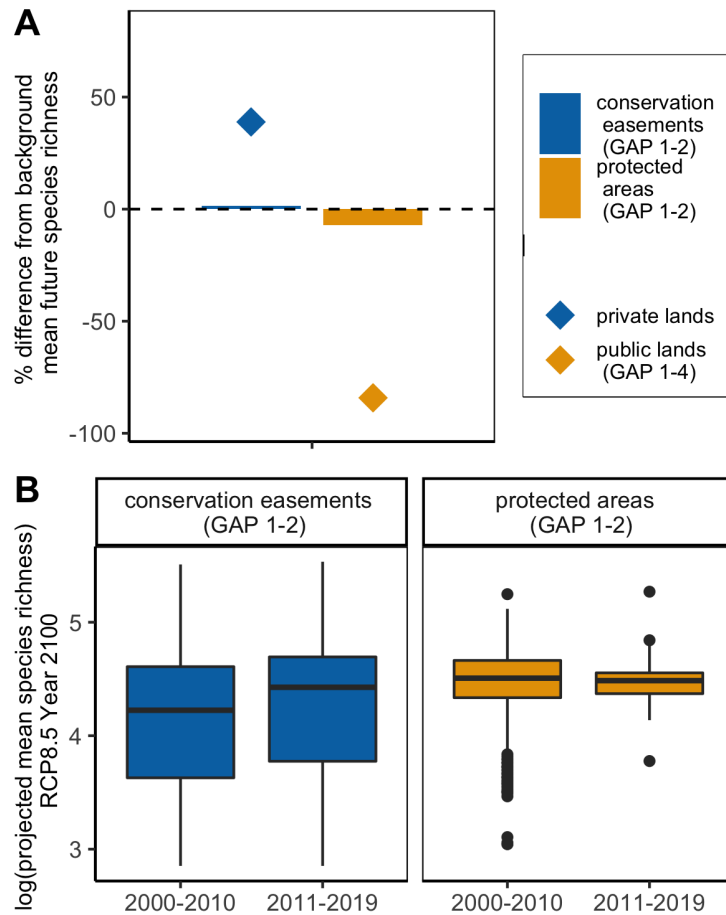


Figure 4: Species richness distributions under climate change are expected to change drastically. (A) Both easements and protected areas are projected to more closely track background species richness across the United States (less targeted than under current conditions). (B) While easements established in the past decade have more effectively tracked areas projected to have higher species richness under a changing climate, the opposite is true in protected areas.”).

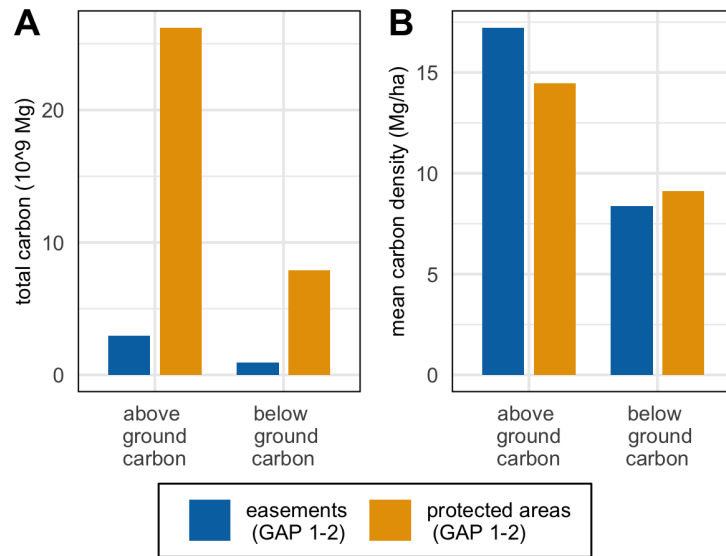


Figure 5: Mitigating climate change and its impact on biodiversity is a critical component of post-2020 biodiversity targets. (A) Protected areas hold significantly more above and below ground carbon than conservation easements, but (B) on a per unit area basis, conservation easements hold more above ground carbon than protected areas and slightly less below ground carbon.”).

125 *Climate-resilient biodiversity conservation and land-based climate change mitigation*

126 Under future climate change scenarios (high emissions: RCP 8.5 (17)), conservation easements and
 127 protected areas closely track projected background mean species richness values across all U.S. land (Fig.
 128 4A). Notably, protected areas and conservation easements (GAP 1 and GAP 2) had very similar mean future
 129 richness values. While conservation easements have marginally improved their tracking of future richness
 130 patterns over the past decade (Fig. 4C), protected areas have not (Fig. 4C).

131 Contributions to nature-based climate mitigation also varied significantly across protected areas and
 132 conservation easements. Unsurprisingly, given their larger land area, protected areas accounted for significantly
 133 more total above and below ground carbon (Fig. 5A). However, conservation easements had higher above
 134 ground carbon on a per unit area basis (Fig. 5B).

135 **Discussion**

136 Doubling the area of protected land in the United States over the next decade while also prioritizing land
 137 with high biodiversity and climate mitigation value will require significant investment in, and expansion
 138 of, private land conservation measures. We show that private land conservation instruments (conservation
 139 easements) better target areas with high conservation value (Fig. 1E), high species richness (Fig. 2) and high
 140 climate mitigation potential (Fig. 5) relative to federally-owned protected areas managed for biodiversity

141 across the U.S. Importantly, our calculation of the average conservation value of public and private lands
142 shows that private lands hold the majority of currently unprotected land with high biodiversity and climate
143 mitigation value (Fig. 2 and Fig. 5). The urgency of expanding land protection to halt biodiversity loss
144 will require flexible and expedient pathways to implementing protections on these lands. Meeting 30%
145 area targets by 2030 will demand conservation actions that complement the historically unjust and legally
146 cumbersome processes of implementing new national parks. Conservation easements and other forms of
147 private land protection provide compelling and cost-effective alternatives.

148 *Protecting key biodiversity areas*

149 Area-based conservation goals risk incentivizing the protection of cost-effective and opportunistically
150 available land rather than land with high conservation and climate mitigation value (21). We find that
151 unprotected private land is distributed in areas with higher mean species richness values than public land
152 that is not managed for biodiversity. Similarly, conservation easements more effectively target areas with
153 high species richness than public protected areas (Fig. 2). However, we find that neither public protected
154 areas nor conservation easements have significantly improved their targeting of species richness over the past
155 two decades (Fig. 3) despite the expansion of spatial biodiversity data (7) and the widely accepted Aichi
156 Biodiversity Targets of the previous decade.

157 While species richness is only one component of biodiversity, it is a commonly used proxy to prioritize
158 and assess the distribution of protection relative to key biodiversity areas (22). Exploring biodiversity
159 metrics such as functional and phylogenetic diversity, as well as other considerations commonly used in
160 planning reserve networks such as complementarity and endemism, will be critical to prioritizing future
161 investment in both private and public protected areas. Notably, more than half of threatened and endangered
162 species rely on private land for critical habitat (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, 1997). However, despite this
163 reliance of threatened and endangered species on private lands, we found that the distributions of endangered,
164 vulnerable, and small range species more closely track protected areas than conservation easements (SI Fig.
165 S2), highlighting the importance of complementary approaches to land protection.

166 *Climate resilience and mitigation potential on private lands*

167 As conservation practitioners decide where and how to protect land, considering the potential impacts of
168 climate-driven species range shifts is critical to ensure resilient networks of protected lands over the next
169 decade. Examples of misguided land conservation due to shifting ranges of critical species are plentiful (23).
170 Our analysis shows that both protected areas and conservation easements were less targeted towards lands

171 with high species richness under climate change (Fig. 4) compared to richness in current climate conditions
172 (Fig. 2), suggesting that climate resilient biodiversity conservation will require more effective prioritization of
173 lands that are projected to be important for biodiversity. Similar to our analysis of current species richness
174 distributions, private land held the highest density of projected future species richness overall, and thus
175 should be central in to designing climate resilient pathways to achieving 30% national protection.

176 While designing climate resilient biodiversity protections is important given current emissions trajectories,
177 climate mitigation is critical to slowing climate change (24) and its impact on biodiversity (25; 26). Land-
178 based climate mitigation pathways (among other emissions reductions pathways) are a central component
179 of post-2020 area-based conservation targets (Exec. Order No. 14008, 2021). Unsurprisingly, conservation
180 easements accounted for a significantly smaller portion of total above and below ground carbon than protected
181 lands due to being only a fraction of the area of fee-owned protected areas (Fig. 5A). However, we found
182 that conservation easements store significantly more above ground carbon than protected areas on a per
183 unit area basis (Fig. 5B). We also found that private lands overall held the majority of land carbon in the
184 U.S. (Supporting information; Fig. S3). Thus, these lands hold the greatest potential for significant progress
185 towards land-based climate mitigation.

186 *Avoiding pitfalls of private land conservation*

187 Despite the promise of private land contributions to biodiversity protection and climate mitigation,
188 conservation easements and other private land protection measures have been criticized for ineffective
189 management and monitoring, as well as inequitable access and outcomes. Private land protections are often
190 opaque in their implemented management practices, particularly when compared to publicly managed lands
191 (27). Furthermore, monitoring the impact of management practices on private land at a national scale is
192 difficult and disjointed. Systematic monitoring of private lands will necessarily raise concerns of privacy,
193 potentially dissuading adoption of agreements in key areas. Further, private land conservation measures,
194 including conservation easements, may disproportionately benefit high income landowners, often limit public
195 access, and are rooted in legacies of racial capitalism and environmental injustice (28). Mitigating these
196 issues through broader community engagement, locally-defined monitoring protocols, and increasing public
197 access will be critical to ensuring private land conservation contributes to the equity and access targets of
198 post-2020 conservation goals.

199 Finally, it is notable that conservation easements typically conserve smaller parcels than protected
200 areas (Fig. 1C), potentially resulting in patchier landscapes and increasing the impact of edge effects (29).
201 However, categorizing parcels of protection as either “small and targeted” or “large and mismatched” is

202 a false dichotomy – parcel size of either conservation easements or protected areas is not correlated with
203 species richness in the U.S. (Supporting information; Fig. S4). Even when accounting for area and state of
204 protected areas and easements, easements had significantly higher richness values on a per parcel basis. Still,
205 smaller parcels are likely to be more common in private land protections due to land ownership patterns in
206 the United States. Thus, strategies to spatially cluster easements in high priority areas may help ameliorate
207 edge effects and improve connectivity.

208 *Sub-national governance and private land conservation*

209 While our analysis focused on private land conservation distributions at a national scale, development and
210 implementation of 30x30 legislation in the United States (and likely in other federalist countries) will largely
211 be driven by sub-national governing bodies (4). On the sub-national scale in the U.S., private land protections
212 have already been featured in a number of state-based 30x30 executive orders. A deeper exploration of
213 the sub-national distribution of private and public land relative to biodiversity and carbon distributions
214 will be critical to ensuring that policies align with the resources in a given governance unit, rather than
215 assuming national scale patterns are relevant at smaller scales (30). While accounting for State in our
216 analysis does not change the qualitative finding that easements better target areas of higher species richness
217 (Table S3), comparative analyses will also be critical to understanding sociopolitical and ecological contexts
218 that impact the value of easement to meeting large-scale conservation targets. Investigating differences in
219 the conservation value of public and private lands across sub-national scales of governance may also help
220 clarify the mechanisms driving the patterns of private and public land protections on the national scale.
221 Additionally, understanding the structure of private land initiatives or public-private partnerships that are
222 actively working towards spatial coordination of protection and biodiversity will be central to improving the
223 targeting of protection over the next decade.

224 **Conclusion**

225 Our analysis provides a national scale comparison of public and private lands conservation in the United
226 States and highlights the importance of private land conservation for climate resilient biodiversity protection.
227 We show that private conservation is among the most effective and feasible land-based pathways to meeting
228 U.S. land-based climate change mitigation goals by 2030. Despite numerous transnational and national
229 environmental initiatives over the past fifty years, biodiversity loss, land conversion and climate change
230 continue at unprecedented rates (31; 32). Meeting post-2020 biodiversity targets will require policy that

231 synergistically expands biodiversity protection on both private and public lands while targeting areas of high
232 conservation and climate mitigation value.

233 **Author Contributions**

234 MC, CB, and JB contributed to conceptualization of study. MC and JB contributed to writing manuscript.
235 MC and CB contributed to analysis. MC, CB, and JB contributed to editing and revising of the manuscript.

236 **References**

- 237 1. Buchanan, G. M., Butchart, S. H., Chandler, G. & Gregory, R. D. Assessment of national-level progress
238 towards elements of the Aichi Biodiversity Targets. *Ecological Indicators* (2020) doi:10.1016/j.ecolind.2020.106497.
- 239 2. Maxwell, S. L. *et al.* Area-based conservation in the twenty-first century. (2020) doi:10.1038/s41586-
240 020-2773-z.
- 241 3. Tsioumani, E. Convention on Biological Diversity: A Review of the Post-2020 Global Biodiversity
242 Framework Working Group Negotiations. (2020) doi:10.3233/EPL-200207.
- 243 4. Diversity, C. on B. UPDATE OF THE ZERO DRAFT OF THE POST-2020 GLOBAL BIODIVERSITY
244 FRAMEWORK. (2020).
- 245 5. Marvier, M. & Kareiva, P. The evidence and values underlying 'new conservation'. (2014) doi:10.1016/j.tree.2014.01.005.
- 246 6. McIntosh, E. J., Pressey, R. L., Lloyd, S., Smith, R. J. & Grenyer, R. The Impact of Systematic
247 Conservation Planning. (2017) doi:10.1146/annurev-environ-102016-060902.
- 248 7. Sinclair, S. P. *et al.* The use, and usefulness, of spatial conservation prioritizations. *Conservation*
249 *Letters* (2018) doi:10.1111/conl.12459.
- 250 8. Jenkins, C. N., Van Houtan, K. S., Pimm, S. L. & Sexton, J. O. US protected lands mismatch
251 biodiversity priorities. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*
252 (2015) doi:10.1073/pnas.1418034112.
- 253 9. Wallace, G. N. Land trusts, private reserves and conservation easements in the United States. *Conserva-*
254 *tion biology : the journal of the Society for Conservation Biology* (2008) doi:10.3375/0885-8608(2008)28[109:CMAMAO]2.0.CO
255 10. Cortés Capano, G., Toivonen, T., Soutullo, A. & Di Minin, E. The emergence of private land
256 conservation in scientific literature: A review. (2019) doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2019.07.010.
- 257 11. Stroman, D. A., Kreuter, U. P. & Gan, J. Balancing Property Rights and Social Responsibili-
258 ties: Perspectives of Conservation Easement Landowners. *Rangeland Ecology and Management* (2017)
259 doi:10.1016/j.rama.2016.11.001.

- 260 12. Rissman, A. R. *et al.* Conservation easements: Biodiversity protection and private use. *Conservation*
261 *Biology* (2007) doi:10.1111/j.1523-1739.2007.00660.x.
- 262 13. Merenlender, A. M., Huntsinger, L., Guthey, G. & Fairfax, S. K. Land Trusts and Conservation
263 Easements: Who Is Conserving What for Whom? (2004) doi:10.1111/j.1523-1739.2004.00401.x.
- 264 14. National Conservation Easements Database. Conservation Easements Database of the U.S. (2020).
- 265 15. IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature). The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species.
266 Version 2020-3. (2020).
- 267 16. Birdlife International and NatureServe. Bird species distribution maps of the world. See <http://www.birdlife.org>.
268 (2020).
- 269 17. Lawler, J. J. *et al.* Planning for climate change through additions to a national protected area network:
270 Implications for cost and configuration. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*
271 (2020) doi:10.1098/rstb.2019.0117.
- 272 18. Spawn, S. A., Sullivan, C. C., Lark, T. J. & Gibbs, H. K. Harmonized global maps of above and
273 belowground biomass carbon density in the year 2010. *Scientific Data* (2020) doi:10.1038/s41597-020-0444-4.
- 274 19. (GAP), U. G. S. (. G. A. P. *Protected Areas Database of the United States (PAD-US) 2.1: U.S.*
275 *Geological Survey data release.* (2018) doi:<https://doi.org/10.5066/P955KPLE>.
- 276 20. Gorelick, N. *et al.* Google Earth Engine: Planetary-scale geospatial analysis for everyone. *Remote*
277 *Sensing of Environment* (2017) doi:10.1016/j.rse.2017.06.031.
- 278 21. Baldi, G., Teixeira, M., Martin, O. A., Grau, H. R. & Jobbágy, E. G. Opportunities drive the global
279 distribution of protected areas. *PeerJ* (2017) doi:10.7717/peerj.2989.
- 280 22. Jenkins, C. N., Pimm, S. L. & Joppa, L. N. Global patterns of terrestrial vertebrate diversity and
281 conservation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* (2013)
282 doi:10.1073/pnas.1302251110.
- 283 23. Hannah, L. *et al.* Protected area needs in a changing climate. *Frontiers in Ecology and the*
284 *Environment* (2007) doi:10.1890/1540-9295(2007)5[131:PANIAC]2.0.CO;2.
- 285 24. Griscom, B. W. *et al.* Natural climate solutions. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*
286 **114**, 11645–11650 (2017).
- 287 25. Urban, M. C. Accelerating extinction risk from climate change. *Science* (2015) doi:10.1126/science.aaa4984.
- 288 26. Thomas, C. D. *et al.* Extinction risk from climate change. *Nature* (2004) doi:10.1038/nature02121.
- 289 27. Drescher, M. & Brenner, J. C. The practice and promise of private land conservation. (2018)
290 doi:10.5751/ES-10020-230203.

- 291 28. Van Sant, L., Hardy, D. & Nuse, B. Conserving what? Conservation easements and environmental
292 justice in the coastal US South. *Human Geography* (2020) doi:10.1177/1942778620962023.
- 293 29. Woodroffe, R. & Ginsberg, J. R. Edge effects and the extinction of populations inside protected areas.
294 (1998) doi:10.1126/science.280.5372.2126.
- 295 30. Kareiva, P. *et al.* Documenting the conservation value of easements. *Conservation Science and*
296 *Practice* 1–13 (2021) doi:10.1111/csp2.451.
- 297 31. Butchart, S. H. *et al.* Global biodiversity: Indicators of recent declines. *Science* (2010) doi:10.1126/science.1187512.
- 298 32. IPCC. *Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the*
299 *Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.* (2014).