

1 **The global protected area network does not harbor genetically diverse**
2 **populations**

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27

28 **Abstract**

29 Global biodiversity conservation targets include expanding protected areas and maintaining
30 genetic diversity within species by 2030. However, the extent to which existing protected areas
31 capture genetic diversity within species is unclear. We examined this question using a global
32 sample of nuclear population-level genetic data comprising georeferenced genotypes from
33 2,513 local populations, 134,183 individuals, and 176 species of mammals and marine fish. We
34 found that the existing protected area network does not capture populations with higher than
35 average genetic diversity, and populations within protected areas are not more genetically
36 differentiated than populations sampled elsewhere. This general trend does not preclude their
37 effectiveness for specific species or regions currently, or in the future. While it may be desirable
38 to prioritize regions with high genetic diversity when designating new protected areas, we
39 caution that this will not be possible in many of the most at-risk regions of the world due to a
40 lack of data. Continued focus on minimizing population decline and maintaining connectivity
41 between protected areas remain essential considerations in area-based conservation for
42 mediating genetic diversity loss.

43 **Keywords:** biodiversity, genetic diversity, genetic differentiation, effective population size,
44 conservation policy

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46

47 **Main text**

48 The Kunming-Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework (KMGBF) adopted in 2022 identified a
49 series of urgent, action-oriented conservation targets for 2030 (CBD, 2022). Two key targets are
50 to expand protected area coverage to 30% of land and sea (the '30 x 30' target, i.e. KMGBF
51 Target 3) and to conserve genetic diversity in all species (KMGBF Target 4). These targets
52 intersect. Protected areas could strengthen the protection of genetic diversity in wild species,
53 and the effectiveness of protected areas could be enhanced by encompassing genetically
54 diverse populations as this would also protect the evolutionary processes that organize and
55 sustain biodiversity (Arponen, 2012; Moritz, 2002). Intraspecific genetic diversity is the most
56 fundamental level of biodiversity, underlying the microevolutionary processes that contribute to
57 populations' adaptive capacity and resilience to environmental change (Lande & Shannon,
58 1996). The growing human environmental footprint is associated with the erosion of genetic
59 diversity across many species on land and in oceans (DiBattista, 2008; Karachaliou et al., 2024;
60 Leigh et al., 2019; Pinsky & Palumbi, 2014; Schmidt et al., 2020). The expansion of protected
61 areas buffering populations from environmental change and exploitation could be a powerful
62 tool for limiting further genetic diversity losses.

63 While protected areas are a mainstay of conservation policy and a widely used tool to protect
64 biodiversity in all its forms, their general effectiveness for conserving genetic diversity is not
65 well understood (but see Figuerola-Ferrando et al., 2023 for marine habitat-forming
66 invertebrates). From a conservation genetics standpoint, we consider a protected area to be
67 effective if it captures genetically diverse or differentiated populations. We tested whether the
68 current global protected area network overlaps with relatively genetically diverse or genetically
69 distinct populations across terrestrial and marine realms. We repurposed publicly archived
70 nuclear genetic data comprising georeferenced genotypes from 2,513 local populations,

71 134,183 individuals, and 176 species of mammals and marine fish (Fig. 1). Using a standardized
72 analytical pipeline (see Methods), we assessed contemporary effective population size, which
73 provides an estimate of the strength of genetic drift in each local population; gene diversity and
74 allelic richness, which measure genetic diversity; and population-specific F_{ST} , a metric of genetic
75 differentiation (see Methods). We used the World Database on Protected Areas (UNEP-WCMC
76 and IUCN, 2022), which contains information on 293,754 protected areas on land and in oceans,
77 to assess the effectiveness of the global protected area network for conserving intraspecific
78 genetic diversity, genetically distinct populations, or both. We evaluated protected area
79 effectiveness in two ways: by considering the protection status of sample locations (in- or
80 outside of a protected area), and the proximity of sample locations to the nearest protected
81 area.

82 We then explored whether protected area effectiveness was influenced by its area, International
83 Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) designation (IUCN, 1994), or species body size. The
84 IUCN designates protected areas as having strict protection of biodiversity (categories I-IV) or
85 sustainable resource use (categories V-VI). Larger, biodiversity-focused protected areas may
86 harbor larger, more genetically diverse or differentiated populations. In regard to body size,
87 genetic diversity may be better captured for smaller bodied species as they could attain larger
88 populations inside protected areas (Williams et al., 2022).

89

90 **Protected area effectiveness for genetic diversity and differentiation**

91 We found little evidence that the current terrestrial and marine protected area network captures
92 genetically diverse or differentiated populations across mammal and fish species in a

93 generalizable way. This could limit the ability of protected areas to sustain resilient populations
94 in the long-term.

95 Spatially explicit Bayesian hierarchical models (see Methods) suggested that the genetic
96 composition of terrestrial mammal and marine fish populations was not associated with
97 whether they occurred within protected areas or with a local population's proximity to a
98 protected area (Table 1, Fig. 2). Most sites in our analyses were located outside protected areas
99 (75% of terrestrial data, 80% of marine). We detected a weak negative relationship between
100 distance to protected area and genetic differentiation in terrestrial mammals, however this
101 relationship appeared to be driven by a strong outlier species (*Dama dama*), and disappeared
102 when this species was removed. Protected area effectiveness was generally similar for species
103 of all body sizes, however smaller mammals tended to have slightly higher allelic richness
104 inside protected areas (Table S2, Fig. S1). Protected area effectiveness in terms of a local
105 population's nearness to a protected area was also unrelated to body size for both fish and
106 mammals (Fig. S1). The size of protected areas did not influence effectiveness for any genetic
107 metric or realm (Table S3, Figs. S2, S3). Finally, we found no differences between the
108 effectiveness of terrestrial protected areas with restricted human access (IUCN categories I-IV)
109 and those designated for sustainable use (V-VI; Table S3, Fig. S2).

110 Species-specific protected area effectiveness did not strongly deviate from the overall effect
111 across species in any model (Fig. 2). This pattern likely reflects the fact that protected areas
112 were haphazardly placed with respect to genetic diversity and population structure for these
113 taxa. Historically, protected areas tended to be designated for the protection of landscapes
114 important to people rather than expressly for the protection of biodiversity, and most often
115 genetic diversity is not directly factored into design decisions (Jenkins et al., 2015; Phillips,
116 2004). However protected areas that were built around habitats and species, such as the

117 Europe-wide Natura 2000 network, may have been expected to better capture areas of high
118 intraspecific genetic diversity. Such differences in management strategies and priorities at
119 population, species, or landscape levels could have contributed to variation in protected area
120 effectiveness at the tails of effect size distributions (Fig. 2). For example, the Belize Barrier Reef
121 Reserve System protects nearly 75,000 hectares of mangrove forest (Cho-Ricketts &
122 Cherrington, 2011), and also happened to capture a well-connected, genetically diverse local
123 population of the Mangrove rivulus (*Kryptolebias marmoratus*). In contrast, the Laguna Atascosa
124 National Wildlife Reserve, which protects ~18,000 hectares of intact brushland habitat in the
125 Lower Rio Grande Valley, contains the largest remaining ocelot (*Leopardus pardalis*) population
126 in the United States. This population is isolated and has notably low genetic diversity (Janecka
127 et al., 2016). While some strategies have inadvertently protected high-diversity populations,
128 protected areas are also used to manage at-risk populations with low genetic diversity. Because
129 protected areas are important for both genetically diverse and depauperate populations, a focus
130 on protecting critical habitat and maintaining stable population sizes could be a strategy that is
131 broadly effective for conserving genetic diversity in species across a range of extinction risks.

132

133 **Conserving genetic diversity and long-term maintenance of protected areas**

134 In general, successes in halting population declines within protected areas have been mixed. In
135 terms of population demography, protected areas, when effective, generally slow the pace of
136 population declines rather than halt decline altogether (Geldmann et al., 2013; Nowakowski et
137 al., 2023; Santangeli et al., 2023). While our results suggest that protected areas do not currently
138 contain highly genetically diverse populations in general, they may still help to reduce future
139 genetic diversity loss by reducing rates of population decline which will in turn slow genetic

140 drift. After populations decline, they continue to lose genetic diversity due to genetic drift for
141 many generations if they remain small. Given that most protected areas were recently
142 established (90% of protected areas were established after 1990) this type of effectiveness
143 would be difficult to detect (UNEP-WCMC and IUCN, 2022).

144 Our results do not preclude protected areas being effective for target species and the
145 conservation of regions with high genetic diversity in the future (Minter et al., 2021; Paz-Vinas et
146 al., 2018). Given the pressing timelines associated with 30 x 30 target commitments, it may be
147 tempting to move forward with including genetic data in spatial prioritizations for the design of
148 new protected areas. This strategy could considerably increase the effectiveness of protected
149 areas, as it would not only preserve species and populations, but the evolutionary processes
150 that contribute to biodiversity resilience (Arponen, 2012; Hanson, Marques, et al., 2020; Moritz,
151 2002). However, including genetic diversity in protected area design would require carefully
152 balancing priorities for different aspects of biodiversity. For example, recent evidence suggests
153 nuclear genetic diversity within species can be negatively related to species richness in some
154 vertebrates (Kahilainen et al., 2014; Schmidt, Dray, et al., 2022; Schmidt, Munshi-South, et al.,
155 2022).

156 Furthermore, while prioritizations including multi-species genetic data may be feasible for
157 certain areas with sufficiently dense spatial and taxonomic data coverage (e.g., the California
158 Conservation Genomics Project <https://www.ccgproject.org/>), this level of data availability is
159 rare (Paz-Vinas et al., 2023), and as our own data suggest, largely confined to North America
160 and Europe (Fig. 1). A recent survey of publicly available nuclear genetic data (microsatellites
161 and genomic data) reported that only 24% of global protected areas contained at least 5
162 genetically sampled local populations (Paz-Vinas et al., 2023). The sparse and geographically
163 unbalanced availability of genetic data suggests that at present we cannot robustly incorporate

164 it into protected area prioritization for the vast majority of species and regions. Data gaps can
165 potentially be circumvented with proxies for genetic diversity (Hanson, Veríssimo, et al., 2020;
166 Hoban et al., 2022). However, we do not currently have reliable substitutes for genetic data to
167 approximate the genetic composition of local populations or regional multi-species diversity
168 could improve the efficacy of prioritization actions (Hanson, Veríssimo, et al., 2020; Schmidt,
169 Hoban, et al., 2023).

170 In the meantime, focusing on minimizing population decline and maintaining connectivity
171 between protected areas remain essential considerations in area-based conservation for
172 protecting genetic diversity. Genetic diversity is a lagging metric of population demography and
173 a forward-looking metric of population resilience, meaning long-term maintenance of high-
174 quality protected areas is critical. Isolation, low ecological representativeness, lack of
175 resources, and mismanagement all could threaten the effectiveness and long-term potential of
176 protected areas. Many protected areas across the globe are disappearing, shrinking, or reducing
177 access restrictions, often for non-sustainable use of natural resources (Mascia & Pailler, 2011).
178 The protected area network is a cornerstone of conservation practice, and continuing
179 commitments to its expansion and maintenance serve as an important resource for preserving
180 genetic diversity, evolutionary processes, the resilience of populations and species, and
181 ultimately the future of biodiversity.

182

183 **Methods**

184 *Genetic data*

185 We used previously compiled databases of publicly archived, georeferenced microsatellite
186 genetic data from terrestrial mammals and marine fish (Karachaliou et al., 2024; Schmidt,
187 Mäkinen, et al., 2023). Detailed methods on database compilation can be found in (Karachaliou
188 et al., 2024; Schmidt, Mäkinen, et al., 2023). Briefly, we obtained a list of species names for
189 terrestrial mammals and marine fish from the IUCN Red List database
190 (<https://www.iucnredlist.org/>). We then performed systematic searches for microsatellite
191 datasets by querying DataONE (<https://www.dataone.org/>), a platform integrating and enabling
192 comprehensive searching across different data repositories, and by directly querying the Dryad
193 Digital Data Repository through its automated programming interface (API). We performed
194 systematic searches in the R statistical software (R Core Team, 2021) using the 'dataone'
195 package (M. B. Jones et al., 2017) and custom scripts to query Dryad with species names and
196 'microsat*' keywords. We evaluated each result for suitability according to pre-defined criteria,
197 including: geo-referenced sample locations, genotype data available for neutral microsatellite
198 loci, free-ranging (e.g., non-captive) populations, and study designs which did not affect genetic
199 diversity (e.g., excluding studies on microsatellite development, parentage analyses, etc.). We
200 note that precise sampling years were unavailable for a large portion of the data due to uneven
201 reporting in the original datasets. Historical samples, where they could be identified, were
202 removed. For studies with multiple temporal samples at the same spatial location, we retained
203 only the most recent time point. We also removed sample sites with fewer than 5 sampled
204 individuals.

205 We chose to work with microsatellites due to their wide availability and because they are
206 appropriate markers for measuring neutral, genome-wide genetic diversity and population
207 structure (Mittell et al., 2015). We did not use mitochondrial DNA markers because, despite their
208 abundance, they are not neutral and do not capture genome-wide diversity (Galtier et al., 2009),

209 thus are not appropriate for the questions we test here. Genetic diversity estimated from
210 microsatellites and the typical number of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) used is
211 ~80% correlated with genome-wide diversity for both marker types (Mittell et al., 2015).
212 Although SNP data are used increasingly frequently, they are currently not as widely available
213 geographically and taxonomically as microsatellites. Microsatellites are still commonly used
214 markers in landscape genetics and thus are currently the best suited marker type for spatially-
215 explicit macrogenetics analyses.

216 We analyzed four metrics of genetic composition. Gene diversity (Nei, 1973) is the probability of
217 selecting two different alleles in a nonrandom mating population, and takes into account both
218 the number and evenness of alleles. Allelic richness here is rarefied allelic richness, the number
219 of alleles at each locus accounting for variable sample sizes across sites and studies (rarefied
220 to 10 alleles, the minimum number of samples across all datasets). Effective population size is
221 a contemporary effective size that estimates the strength of genetic drift in the parental
222 generation of the sampled population. We estimated effective population size using the linkage
223 disequilibrium method in NeEstimator v2 (Do et al., 2014) with an allele frequency cutoff of 0.1.
224 Finally, we estimated population differentiation using a population-specific F_{ST} metric that we
225 can interpret as a relative measure of how far sites have diverged from a common ancestor of
226 all the sites in the sample (Weir & Goudet, 2017). A protected area might harbor low genetic
227 diversity, but may be genetically—and thus potentially phenotypically—unique at the whole
228 species level and important to protect (e.g., (Coleman et al., 2013).

229 *Protected areas*

230 We obtained a shapefile of global protected areas available from the World Database on
231 Protected areas (WDPA) in November 2022. This is a comprehensive database including spatial

232 locations and metadata for terrestrial and marine protected areas and other effective area-
233 based conservation measures. We cleaned protected area data using the 'wdpar' package
234 (Hanson, 2022) which provides an R interface to the WDPA database. We followed best
235 practices described in (Butchart et al., 2015; Runge et al., 2015; UNEP-WCMC and IUCN, 2022)
236 to clean the data. This involved repairing invalid geometries, removing protected areas with
237 status listed as "proposed" or "unknown", removing United Nations Educational, Scientific and
238 Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Biosphere reserves, and buffering protected areas denoted by
239 point locations using their reported spatial extent to generate a circular area.

240 We performed a spatial join using the R package 'sf' (Pebesma, 2018) to identify genetic sites
241 located within protected areas to create a binary predictor variable, hereafter *protected area*
242 *status* (0 = outside a protected area; 1 = within a protected area). We used decimal degrees in
243 the WGS84 coordinate system for both genetic and WDPA data. Populations may use and
244 benefit from protected areas even if the sample location was not within protected area
245 boundaries. We accounted for this by additionally recording the distance between each sample
246 site and the nearest protected area. We measured the geodesic distances (m) between genetic
247 sample sites and protected areas using the 'geosphere' package (Hijmans, 2019). The geodesic
248 distance is a highly accurate distance measure for two points along a curved surface. If a site
249 was located inside a protected area, we set this distance to 0.

250 *Analysis*

251 We used Bayesian generalized linear mixed models to test for relationships between protected
252 area status or distance from protected area and genetic composition. We scaled and centered
253 all variables before analysis so that effect sizes were comparable across models and genetic
254 metrics. We log-transformed effective population size, which naturally varies across orders of

255 magnitude across species. We fit models using the integrated nested Laplace approximation
256 implemented in the 'INLA' package version 22.5.3 (Lindgren & Rue, 2015; Rue et al., 2009).
257 Unlike Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) based methods for fitting Bayesian models, INLA
258 deterministically approximates marginal posterior distributions and allows for faster and more
259 flexible fitting of complex model structures (Beguin et al., 2012). All analyses were performed in
260 R version 4.1.2.

261 *Effect of protected area status and distance to protected area.* We fit a series of models, one for
262 each metric of genetic composition (gene diversity, allelic richness, population-specific F_{ST} , and
263 effective population size) and for each predictor variable (protected area status or distance to
264 nearest protected area), for a total of 8 models. We used normally distributed priors on fixed
265 effect slope coefficients with mean 0 ± 10 standard deviation (0.1 precision in INLA) and default
266 priors for other parameters. These are weakly informative priors that do not assume any
267 directionality of effect. We performed analyses in parallel for terrestrial and marine realms.

268 Our data were hierarchical, with multiple observations recorded for species. Thus, we used a
269 random effect structure to account for species-level variation in the data. We modeled
270 differences in the means of each genetic metric using random intercepts for species. Because
271 protected areas likely have different relationships with genetic composition across species, we
272 allowed the relationships between predictor (status or distance) and response to vary according
273 to species with random slopes. We also accounted for the spatial structure of the data with a
274 Besag-York-Mollié-type spatial random effect. For the spatial random effect, we defined the
275 connectivity matrix of the sample sites using the k-nearest neighbor method. We fit models for
276 each genetic metric without a spatial effect, and with 8 connectivity matrices ($k = 1$ to $k = 8$
277 neighbors) and selected the best performing model based on deviance information criterion
278 (DIC) and the Watanabe-Akaike criterion (WAIC; Gelman et al., 2014). In fitting spatial random

279 effects our main goal was to capture spatial autocorrelation in model residuals that may violate
280 our models' assumptions, and not to further analyze spatial structure.

281 *Effect of area and IUCN category.* We next tested whether attributes of protected areas
282 moderated their effectiveness for genetic composition. For genetic sample sites located within
283 protected areas (353 terrestrial sites, 195 marine), we recorded the area (km²) and IUCN
284 category of the protected area. Some sites were located within multiple protected areas (nested
285 protected areas), and in these instances we used metadata associated with the larger protected
286 area. We log-transformed, scaled, and centered area before analysis. The IUCN has designated
287 6 categories of protected area that describe increasing levels of human interference (IUCN,
288 1994): category I is strict protection, including nature reserves and wilderness areas, and
289 category VI is designated for sustainable resource use. After excluding observations where
290 IUCN category was listed as not applicable, not assigned, or not reported, categories were
291 available for 214 of the terrestrial, and 79 marine sites located in protected areas. We then
292 classified IUCN categories into 2 groups based on purpose for analysis. Categories I-IV are
293 specifically for biodiversity protection, while categories V and VI are designated for multiple use
294 (IUCN, 1994). We then fit a series of hierarchical models relating area or IUCN category to each
295 metric of genetic composition with random slopes and intercepts for species, and accounting
296 for spatially autocorrelated residuals when necessary. Due to small sample size and low
297 replication within species, we did not test the effect of IUCN category on genetic composition of
298 marine sites.

299 *Relationships between protected area effectiveness and body size.* We performed a post hoc
300 analysis testing whether the effectiveness of protected areas for genetic diversity varied with
301 respect to species body size. To do this, we took a meta-regression approach, using species'
302 estimated effect sizes (random slopes) from hierarchical regressions of protected area

303 effectiveness (status or distance) on genetic composition. These random slopes describe the
304 magnitude and direction of the effect of protected areas for each species, and are thus a
305 species-specific measure of protected area effectiveness for genetic composition. We then
306 compiled body mass (g) for terrestrial vertebrate species from the PanTHERIA database (K. E.
307 Jones et al., 2009) via the R package 'traitdata' (RS-eco, 2022). For marine fish, we used body
308 length (cm) as a measure of body size obtained through the 'rFishbase' package (Boettiger et
309 al., 2012). We used body size as a predictor variable in a series of simple linear regressions ('lm'
310 function in R) for each genetic metric with species effect sizes as a response. We performed
311 analyses in parallel for terrestrial and marine species.

312

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323 Conceptualization: All

324 Methodology: CS, CJG

325 Data curation: CS, EK, AVG

326 Formal analysis: CS

327 Visualization: CS

328 Funding acquisition: AVG, MEH

329 Writing – first draft: CS, CJG

330 Writing – review and editing: All

331

332 **Data and code availability:** All data underlying this work are publicly available (see Methods).

333 Code and analyzed datasets will be made available upon acceptance.

334

335 **Competing interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

336

337 **Disclaimer**

338 Any use of trade, firm, or product names is for descriptive purposes only and does not imply

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340

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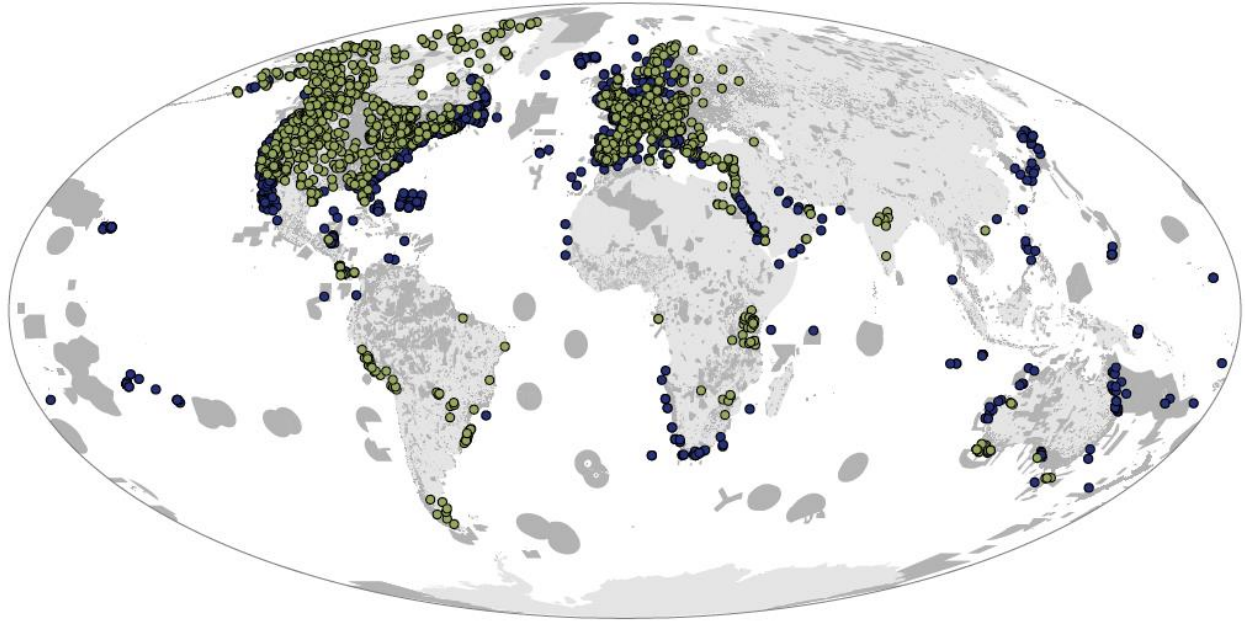
512 **Table 1.** Model summaries for the relationships between protected area status or distance
 513 (predictors) and the genetic composition of terrestrial and marine sites. Mean overall effect
 514 sizes for each predictor are given with 95% credible intervals. The model marginal log likelihood
 515 and Watanabe-Akaike information criterion (WAIC) are presented for model comparison.
 516 Credible intervals for all models overlap 0, suggesting neither protected area status nor distance
 517 generally affect genetic composition across terrestrial mammal or marine fish species.

518

	predictor	mean (95% CI)	marginal log likelihood	WAIC
terrestrial				
effective population size	status	-0.06 (-0.20 - 0.08)	-1266.35	2595.87
	distance	0.02 (-0.06 - 0.09)	-1554.28	2497.20
gene diversity	status	-0.06 (-0.15 - 0.03)	-1491.50	944.12
	distance	0.04 (-0.00 - 0.09)	-1092.89	1074.33
allelic richness	status	0.01 (-0.08 - 0.11)	-1480.01	1639.72
	distance	0.02 (-0.03 - 0.06)	-1609.61	1210.80
population-specific F_{ST}	status	0.07 (-0.05 - 0.19)	-1856.58	2172.28
	distance	-0.06 (-0.12 - -0.00)	-1613.95	2171.92
marine				
effective population size	status	-0.09 (-0.34 - 0.16)	-979.27	1532.71
	distance	0.07 (-0.05 - 0.19)	-982.72	1505.78
gene diversity	status	0.05 (-0.07 - 0.17)	-443.23	1147.78
	distance	0.00 (-0.06 - 0.05)	-192.01	1071.17
allelic richness	status	-0.01 (-0.14 - 0.12)	-1084.60	1482.13
	distance	0.02 (-0.04 - 0.08)	-1012.98	1433.98
population-specific F_{ST}	status	-0.05 (-0.23 - 0.12)	-896.11	2130.08
	distance	0.00 (-0.07 - 0.08)	-621.49	2162.52

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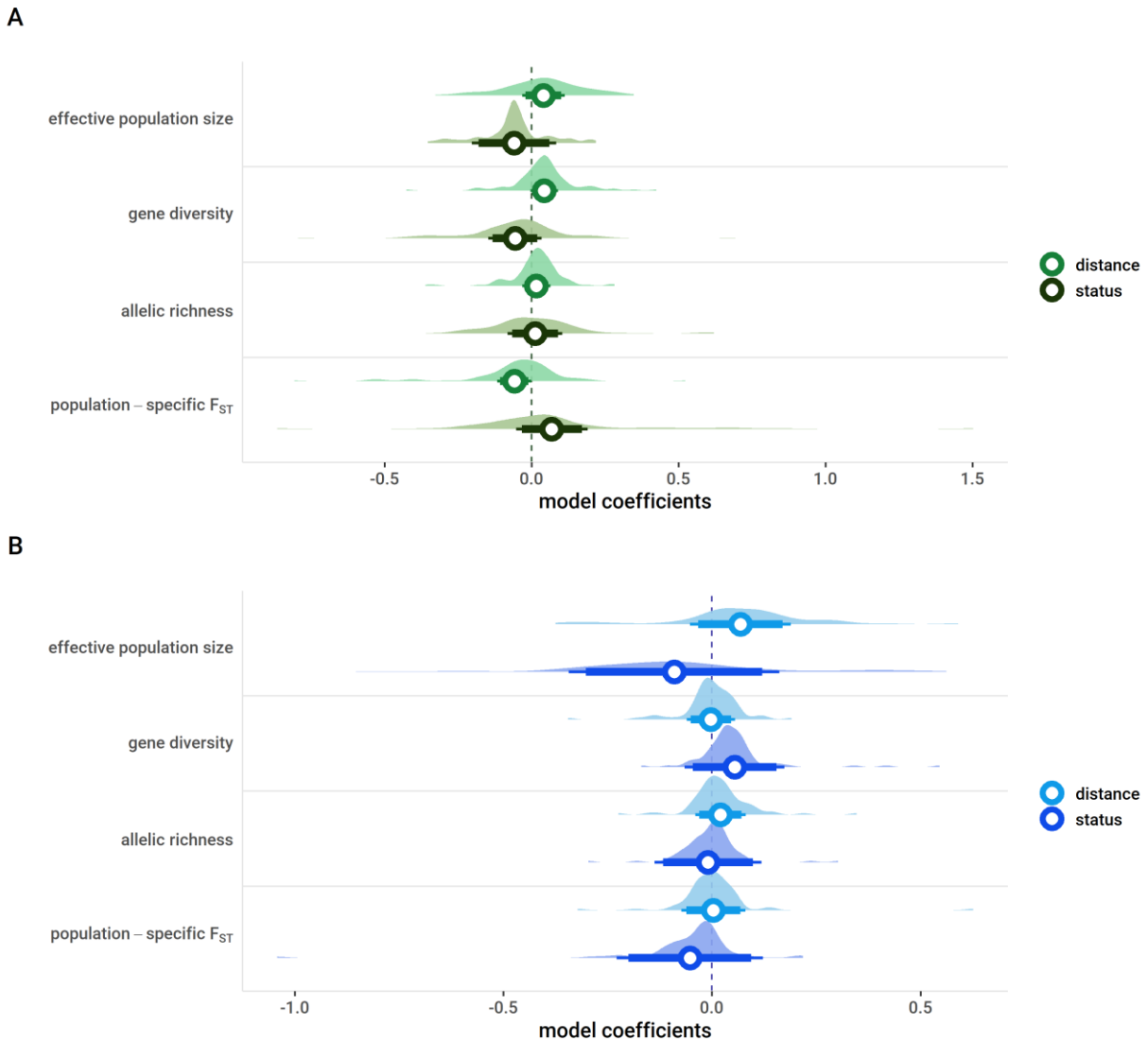
522 **Figure 1.** Map of genetic sample sites for terrestrial mammals (green) and marine fish (blue).

523 Protected areas are shown in dark grey. Each point represents a location where multiple

524 individuals of a single species were sampled to obtain estimates of effective population size,

525 genetic diversity, and genetic differentiation.

526



527

528 **Figure 2.** Model summaries of generalized linear mixed models for terrestrial mammal (a) and
 529 marine fish (b) genetic composition with distance to protected area or protected area status (in
 530 or outside a protected area) as predictors. Open circles are estimates of the overall mean effect
 531 of distance or status, shown with 90% (thick lines) and 95% (thin lines) credible intervals (see
 532 Table 1). Credible intervals significantly overlapping 0 (dashed lines) suggest no detectable
 533 effects of the predictor variables. Density plots show the distribution of species-specific
 534 random slopes for each model. Species-specific effects tended to aggregate near the overall

535 effect, indicating that genetic composition in most species was unrelated to distance to
536 protected area or protected area status.

Supplementary Information: The global protected area network does not harbor genetically diverse populations

Contents:

Tables S1 – S3

Figures S1 – S3

Table S1. Data summarized for species within each realm (terrestrial mammal or marine fish). *Individuals* is the number of individuals summed across all sites; *sites total* is the total number of spatial locations sampled; *sites in PAs* denotes the number of sample sites that were located inside a protected area; *median distance* is the median distance to the nearest protected area in meters (note that sites located inside protected areas have distance set to 0). Summary statistics are reported for each genetic metric, with mean and standard deviation given for gene diversity and population-specific F_{ST} (standard deviations and F_{ST} are NA when only a single site was sampled), and median and range are reported for allelic richness and effective population size. Effective population size is NA when it was inestimable. Note for single sites, range minima and maxima are equal to the median value.

realm	species	individuals	sites (total)	sites (in PAs)	median distance	gene diversity	allelic richness	population-specific F_{ST}	effective population size
terrestrial	<i>Alces alces</i>	961	23	5	2822.43	0.64 (0.09)	4.1 (2.41 - 4.55)	0.04 (0.06)	56.4 (18.1 - 3617.9)
terrestrial	<i>Antilocapra americana</i>	175	1	0	433.48	0.67 (NA)	4 (4 - 4)	NA	39.3 (39.3 - 39.3)
terrestrial	<i>Apodemus flavicollis</i>	879	19	10	0	0.73 (0.15)	6.02 (3.54 - 6.43)	0.04 (0.06)	75.4 (6.5 - 227.4)
terrestrial	<i>Artibeus jamaicensis</i>	386	24	4	2525.04	0.71 (0.03)	4.97 (4.3 - 5.14)	0.01 (0.03)	78.3 (30.2 - 1000.6)
terrestrial	<i>Bettongia penicillata</i>	231	4	1	4258.12	0.76 (0.09)	5.19 (3.54 - 5.81)	0.12 (0.1)	58.2 (36.1 - 312.7)
terrestrial	<i>Bison bison</i>	184	8	4	135.99	0.47 (0.03)	2.63 (2.46 - 2.85)	0.13 (0.05)	63.3 (3 - 437.9)
terrestrial	<i>Bradypus pygmaeus</i>	10	1	0	16087.7	0.23 (NA)	1.77 (1.77 - 1.77)	NA	19.8 (19.8 - 19.8)
terrestrial	<i>Bradypus variegatus</i>	69	4	0	22666.82	0.42 (0.12)	2.75 (1.73 - 3.48)	0.35 (0.19)	41 (21.8 - 43)
terrestrial	<i>Canis latrans</i>	392	43	1	4819.93	0.77 (0.03)	5.8 (4.3 - 13.7)	0.02 (0.03)	19.5 (1.2 - 439.3)
terrestrial	<i>Canis lupus</i>	312	5	0	2487.4	0.72 (0.04)	4.65 (3.85 - 6.61)	0.05 (0.04)	15.8 (8 - 55.1)
terrestrial	<i>Capra ibex</i>	152	1	1	0	0.44 (NA)	2.37 (2.37 - 2.37)	0.04 (NA)	153.2 (153.2 - 153.2)
terrestrial	<i>Capreolus capreolus</i>	690	16	6	900.08	0.63 (0.05)	3.46 (2.88 - 4.58)	0.13 (0.1)	110.25 (11 - 679.8)
terrestrial	<i>Carollia castanea</i>	348	24	4	2746.04	0.69 (0.02)	4.33 (4.05 - 4.62)	0.01 (0.02)	97.6 (15 - 891.5)
terrestrial	<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	1591	30	14	101.36	0.64 (0.09)	4.18 (2.14 - 4.78)	0.16 (0.13)	54.95 (2.1 - 495.1)
terrestrial	<i>Ctenomys minutus</i>	323	25	1	9558.86	0.55 (0.11)	3.21 (1.83 - 4.21)	0.32 (0.13)	11.4 (0.5 - 39)
terrestrial	<i>Cynomys leucurus</i>	801	1	1	0	0.32 (NA)	2.15 (2.15 - 2.15)	NA	2.9 (2.9 - 2.9)
terrestrial	<i>Cynopterus sphinx</i>	81	1	0	185885.85	0.71 (NA)	4.37 (4.37 - 4.37)	NA	472.8 (472.8 - 472.8)
terrestrial	<i>Dama dama</i>	340	10	3	910.72	0.3 (0.09)	1.92 (1.5 - 2.25)	0.49 (0.15)	36.8 (2 - 313.4)
terrestrial	<i>Diceros bicornis</i>	553	3	2	0	0.5 (0.01)	2.72 (2.61 - 2.73)	0.01 (0.01)	26.6 (21.2 - 49.7)
terrestrial	<i>Dipodomys ingens</i>	558	7	2	4848.99	0.88 (0.04)	7.15 (6.58 - 7.37)	0.02 (0.01)	35.15 (22.9 - 354.3)
terrestrial	<i>Eptesicus serotinus</i>	694	34	13	388.5	0.59 (0.05)	3.57 (2.96 - 4.24)	0.06 (0.07)	42.1 (5.6 - 1843.2)
terrestrial	<i>Erinaceus europaeus</i>	7	1	0	651.9	0.4 (NA)	2.7 (2.7 - 2.7)	0.19 (NA)	2.8 (2.8 - 2.8)

terrestrial	<i>Felis silvestris</i>	620	15	6	760.39	0.66 (0.04)	4.2 (3.18 - 4.86)	0.1 (0.05)	41.45 (2.6 - 497.1)
terrestrial	<i>Gazella arabica</i>	114	4	1	40474.03	0.66 (0.11)	4.53 (3.15 - 5.58)	0.12 (0.15)	8.2 (2.5 - 42.4)
terrestrial	<i>Glaucomys volans</i>	278	8	1	816.06	0.75 (0.05)	5.23 (4.67 - 6.61)	0.03 (0.04)	39.8 (24.2 - 111.6)
terrestrial	<i>Lama guanicoe</i>	223	12	3	10443.2	0.68 (0.06)	4.1 (3.08 - 4.59)	0.1 (0.07)	15.7 (1.9 - 81.5)
terrestrial	<i>Lasionycteris noctivagans</i>	87	1	0	31026.22	0.83 (NA)	5.47 (5.47 - 5.47)	NA	353.9 (353.9 - 353.9)
terrestrial	<i>Lasiurus cinereus</i>	132	1	0	31026.22	0.88 (NA)	6.51 (6.51 - 6.51)	NA	1495.5 (1495.5 - 1495.5)
terrestrial	<i>Lemmus lemmus</i>	276	13	4	329.6	0.72 (0.04)	4.59 (4.22 - 5.2)	0.04 (0.04)	47.15 (22.2 - 163.3)
terrestrial	<i>Leopardus pardalis</i>	100	3	2	0	0.55 (0.17)	2.86 (2.2 - 4.21)	0.19 (0.27)	13 (8.2 - 40.2)
terrestrial	<i>Lepus americanus</i>	853	39	6	5799.94	0.66 (0.08)	4.47 (2.93 - 5.16)	0.16 (0.1)	30.35 (1.1 - 231.8)
terrestrial	<i>Lepus europaeus</i>	630	7	3	406.32	0.51 (0.06)	3.37 (2.87 - 3.78)	0.09 (0.07)	62.7 (7.1 - 701.6)
terrestrial	<i>Lepus granatensis</i>	194	8	3	669.88	0.36 (0.03)	2.5 (2.27 - 2.82)	0.04 (0.09)	10.5 (3 - 26.2)
terrestrial	<i>Lepus timidus</i>	161	3	1	78.24	0.5 (0.02)	3.54 (2.96 - 3.88)	0.1 (0.03)	71.05 (66.2 - 75.9)
terrestrial	<i>Lontra longicaudis</i>	28	1	0	3714.67	0.72 (NA)	4.31 (4.31 - 4.31)	NA	4.8 (4.8 - 4.8)
terrestrial	<i>Loxodonta africana</i>	974	13	12	0	0.7 (0.07)	4.31 (3.58 - 5.37)	0.02 (0.02)	50.1 (30 - 324.7)
terrestrial	<i>Lycaon pictus</i>	211	7	4	0	0.66 (0.05)	3.81 (3.54 - 4.3)	0.18 (0.06)	12.2 (0.8 - 18.2)
terrestrial	<i>Lynx canadensis</i>	1258	33	3	8462.56	0.72 (0.05)	4.47 (2.65 - 4.68)	0.03 (0.07)	58.45 (11.4 - 3175.7)
terrestrial	<i>Lynx pardinus</i>	104	2	2	0	0.37 (0.11)	2.14 (1.81 - 2.48)	0.44 (0.17)	12.45 (9.9 - 15)
terrestrial	<i>Lynx rufus</i>	2208	65	10	5808.76	0.73 (0.04)	4.46 (3.18 - 5.1)	0.06 (0.05)	100.6 (10.4 - 3544.8)
terrestrial	<i>Macropus eugenii</i>	226	2	0	2962.69	0.41 (0.31)	2.99 (1.72 - 4.26)	0.44 (0.42)	213.5 (213.5 - 213.5)
terrestrial	<i>Martes americana</i>	653	29	2	8264.45	0.63 (0.03)	3.87 (3.32 - 4.12)	0.02 (0.04)	75.45 (4.9 - 1362.4)
terrestrial	<i>Martes martes</i>	140	1	1	0	0.62 (NA)	3.3 (3.3 - 3.3)	NA	28.1 (28.1 - 28.1)
terrestrial	<i>Meles meles</i>	1060	31	8	966.99	0.56 (0.07)	3.49 (2.5 - 5.78)	0.18 (0.1)	48.05 (8.2 - 284.2)
terrestrial	<i>Mephitis mephitis</i>	345	1	0	4203.81	0.81 (NA)	5.23 (5.23 - 5.23)	NA	1290.5 (1290.5 - 1290.5)
terrestrial	<i>Microdipodops megacephalus</i>	180	3	0	18209.88	0.78 (0.05)	4.97 (4.69 - 5.23)	0.09 (0.06)	159.4 (100.4 - 173.9)
terrestrial	<i>Microdipodops pallidus</i>	105	2	0	29167.68	0.73 (0)	4.59 (4.42 - 4.76)	0.08 (0)	333.65 (95.4 - 571.9)
terrestrial	<i>Microtus arvalis</i>	717	33	11	718.32	0.65 (0.21)	4.89 (1.64 - 6.4)	0.23 (0.24)	15 (2 - 8003.8)
terrestrial	<i>Microtus duodecimcostatus</i>	60	10	2	4546.6	0.41 (0.09)	2.65 (2.11 - 4.23)	0.29 (0.16)	8.4 (2.1 - 207.3)
terrestrial	<i>Microtus lusitanicus</i>	42	5	3	0	0.6 (0.09)	3.41 (3.21 - 4.87)	0.13 (0.12)	2.5 (1.6 - 45.3)
terrestrial	<i>Miniopterus schreibersii</i>	312	22	7	175.18	0.41 (0.02)	2.75 (2.52 - 3.02)	0.06 (0.05)	15.9 (3.4 - 231.8)
terrestrial	<i>Mustela nivalis</i>	126	1	1	0	0.8 (NA)	5.21 (5.21 - 5.21)	NA	32.7 (32.7 - 32.7)
terrestrial	<i>Myodes glareolus</i>	492	14	8	0	0.78 (0.05)	5.21 (4.5 - 6.4)	0.05 (0.03)	38 (14.9 - 105.3)
terrestrial	<i>Myotis blythii</i>	12	1	1	0	0.72 (NA)	4.9 (4.9 - 4.9)	NA	11.7 (11.7 - 11.7)

terrestrial	<i>Myotis dasycneme</i>	112	3	0	47.77	0.76 (0.02)	5.18 (4.91 - 5.21)	0.02 (0.02)	36.5 (11.3 - 275.9)
terrestrial	<i>Myotis daubentonii</i>	106	1	1	0	0.73 (NA)	4.56 (4.56 - 4.56)	NA	55.5 (55.5 - 55.5)
terrestrial	<i>Myotis escaleraei</i>	442	15	3	1228.28	0.81 (0.04)	5.57 (4.26 - 6.07)	0.04 (0.04)	21.9 (3.8 - 470.4)
terrestrial	<i>Myotis lucifugus</i>	3104	66	6	5441.66	0.82 (0.04)	5.86 (4.81 - 9.24)	0.01 (0.02)	117.1 (16 - 53777.4)
terrestrial	<i>Myotis myotis</i>	140	1	1	0	0.76 (NA)	5.27 (5.27 - 5.27)	NA	28.4 (28.4 - 28.4)
terrestrial	<i>Myotis septentrionalis</i>	954	17	4	3550.02	0.86 (0.03)	6.61 (5.12 - 6.75)	0 (0.02)	96.7 (11.6 - 3569.6)
terrestrial	<i>Myotis thysanodes</i>	29	2	0	1574.29	0.65 (0.01)	4.36 (4.12 - 4.6)	0.05 (0.06)	172.7 (172.7 - 172.7)
terrestrial	<i>Ningau timealeyi</i>	274	1	0	23009.48	0.79 (NA)	5.48 (5.48 - 5.48)	NA	514.5 (514.5 - 514.5)
terrestrial	<i>Nomascus hainanus</i>	9	1	0	249678.27	0.42 (NA)	2.14 (2.14 - 2.14)	NA	14.7 (14.7 - 14.7)
terrestrial	<i>Nyctalus lasiopterus</i>	191	4	2	3326.79	0.74 (0.02)	4.55 (4.46 - 4.85)	0.02 (0.03)	173.55 (84.9 - 262.2)
terrestrial	<i>Nyctalus leisleri</i>	183	14	4	1000.51	0.72 (0.04)	4.6 (4.1 - 5.33)	0.03 (0.03)	107.85 (2.9 - 136861.7)
terrestrial	<i>Odocoileus hemionus</i>	2332	67	10	8973.89	0.62 (0.09)	3.71 (1.65 - 4.37)	0.11 (0.14)	87.35 (1.1 - 1348.9)
terrestrial	<i>Odocoileus virginianus</i>	2069	64	0	3242.84	0.81 (0.01)	5.51 (5.12 - 5.87)	0.01 (0.01)	192.5 (23.9 - 7931.3)
terrestrial	<i>Oreamnos americanus</i>	102	1	0	6628.71	0.52 (NA)	2.9 (2.9 - 2.9)	NA	111.8 (111.8 - 111.8)
terrestrial	<i>Otospermophilus beecheyi</i>	205	3	0	4042.7	0.75 (0.03)	4.94 (4.68 - 5.5)	0.13 (0.04)	54.1 (38.6 - 63.1)
terrestrial	<i>Ovis canadensis</i>	1071	16	12	0	0.61 (0.05)	3.38 (2.54 - 3.91)	0.12 (0.08)	24.9 (14.6 - 530.7)
terrestrial	<i>Panthera onca</i>	176	9	4	2694.06	0.64 (0.07)	3.9 (2.85 - 4.29)	0.08 (0.1)	19 (4.8 - 58.5)
terrestrial	<i>Panthera tigris</i>	165	7	0	282451.2	0.65 (0.08)	4.1 (3.24 - 10.2)	0.15 (0.09)	2.65 (0.9 - 16.2)
terrestrial	<i>Papio anubis</i>	93	6	0	8645.16	0.73 (0.03)	4.81 (4.68 - 6.97)	0.06 (0.02)	24.95 (18.4 - 76.1)
terrestrial	<i>Papio cynocephalus</i>	354	5	3	0	0.73 (0.05)	4.61 (4.01 - 5.62)	0.07 (0.05)	63.5 (10.4 - 6595.8)
terrestrial	<i>Parantechinus apicalis</i>	196	6	6	0	0.63 (0.08)	3.77 (2.96 - 3.91)	0.05 (0.1)	34.15 (2 - 61.2)
terrestrial	<i>Pekania pennanti</i>	722	34	2	5031.26	0.62 (0.03)	3.59 (2.98 - 4.01)	0.07 (0.05)	38.75 (8.3 - 1372.8)
terrestrial	<i>Peromyscus leucopus</i>	775	36	8	2054.58	0.82 (0.03)	5.82 (4.67 - 10.1)	0.05 (0.04)	40.85 (9.8 - 259.6)
terrestrial	<i>Peromyscus maniculatus</i>	136	10	9	0	0.77 (0.02)	5.54 (5.3 - 5.68)	0.08 (0.02)	13.8 (2.2 - 41.3)
terrestrial	<i>Procyon lotor</i>	330	1	0	2209.44	0.84 (NA)	5.57 (5.57 - 5.57)	NA	2159.3 (2159.3 - 2159.3)
terrestrial	<i>Pseudocheirus occidentalis</i>	145	7	3	98.59	0.58 (0.03)	3.16 (2.93 - 3.3)	0.04 (0.05)	14.6 (8.8 - 33.8)
terrestrial	<i>Pseudomys chapmani</i>	110	1	0	21519.08	0.88 (NA)	6.81 (6.81 - 6.81)	NA	305.7 (305.7 - 305.7)
terrestrial	<i>Pseudomys hermannsburgensis</i>	227	1	0	13942.34	0.84 (NA)	6.14 (6.14 - 6.14)	NA	761.5 (761.5 - 761.5)
terrestrial	<i>Puma concolor</i>	2010	14	2	5004.55	0.5 (0.09)	2.73 (1.97 - 4.14)	0.17 (0.14)	32.75 (1.9 - 124.5)
terrestrial	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	2637	82	26	4232.56	0.77 (0.07)	5.22 (2.29 - 6.54)	0.06 (0.08)	122.05 (6.3 - 12930.2)
terrestrial	<i>Rhinolophus ferrumequinum</i>	950	27	10	142.15	0.73 (0.04)	4.62 (3.47 - 4.79)	0.04 (0.05)	137.4 (30.8 - 6270.7)
terrestrial	<i>Rhynchonycteris naso</i>	198	3	3	0	0.87 (0)	6.46 (6.46 - 6.53)	0.01 (0)	105.4 (51.8 - 187.1)

terrestrial	<i>Rousettus aegyptiacus</i>	490	34	4	11161.49	0.61 (0.05)	3.75 (3.03 - 5.26)	0.13 (0.06)	70.65 (1.3 - 754.3)
terrestrial	<i>Saguinus geoffroyi</i>	59	3	1	1073.67	0.59 (0.03)	3.25 (2.86 - 3.41)	0.05 (0.07)	5.65 (2.4 - 8.9)
terrestrial	<i>Sarcophilus harrisii</i>	60	3	1	554.28	0.41 (0.02)	2.26 (2.23 - 2.35)	0.08 (0.04)	6.5 (3 - 13.1)
terrestrial	<i>Sorex antinorii</i>	213	17	2	1054.55	0.78 (0.03)	5.54 (4.66 - 5.94)	0.06 (0.03)	67.35 (11.4 - 2395.8)
terrestrial	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	1834	24	8	843.96	0.63 (0.07)	3.76 (2.72 - 6.7)	0.09 (0.07)	32.35 (1.8 - 405.7)
terrestrial	<i>Sylvilagus transitionalis</i>	157	3	1	184.99	0.42 (0.09)	2.53 (1.87 - 2.63)	0.15 (0.14)	17.75 (3.7 - 31.8)
terrestrial	<i>Tadarida teniotis</i>	41	1	1	0	0.79 (NA)	5.14 (5.14 - 5.14)	0.01 (NA)	NA
terrestrial	<i>Tamiasciurus douglasii</i>	186	14	8	0	0.65 (0.03)	4.11 (3.69 - 4.43)	0.03 (0.04)	48 (8.8 - 193.5)
terrestrial	<i>Tamiasciurus hudsonicus</i>	188	12	0	3030.4	0.66 (0.08)	4.51 (4.17 - 5.7)	0.07 (0.09)	67.75 (20.8 - 190.3)
terrestrial	<i>Taxidea taxus</i>	1500	15	3	3986.98	0.73 (0.1)	4.58 (2.52 - 5.33)	0.08 (0.12)	59.5 (6.3 - 1780.2)
terrestrial	<i>Thyroptera tricolor</i>	766	2	1	2999.29	0.82 (0.01)	5.7 (5.61 - 5.78)	0.02 (0.01)	158.55 (153.5 - 163.6)
terrestrial	<i>Ursus americanus</i>	3600	43	9	2657.52	0.72 (0.11)	4.68 (1.95 - 7.15)	0.13 (0.12)	45.2 (1 - 534.2)
terrestrial	<i>Ursus arctos</i>	3716	24	7	2190.23	0.69 (0.07)	4.09 (2.93 - 4.84)	0.1 (0.09)	30.95 (11.3 - 133.9)
terrestrial	<i>Ursus maritimus</i>	3640	35	7	53156.94	0.69 (0.06)	4.13 (3.55 - 5)	0.04 (0.03)	138.6 (6.3 - 1692.2)
terrestrial	<i>Vicugna vicugna</i>	374	14	3	21467.18	0.48 (0.08)	3.08 (2.07 - 4.15)	0.17 (0.13)	29.2 (2.7 - 443.9)
terrestrial	<i>Vulpes lagopus</i>	36	2	1	5482.39	0.69 (0.01)	4.61 (4.43 - 4.78)	0.04 (0.05)	80 (80 - 80)
terrestrial	<i>Vulpes vulpes</i>	298	6	0	4097.73	0.7 (0.04)	4.4 (3.58 - 4.46)	0.03 (0.05)	133.45 (3.3 - 572.3)
marine	<i>Aetobatus narinari</i>	572	3	0	47198.51	0.87 (0.01)	6.57 (6.51 - 6.8)	0 (0.01)	25.1 (19.6 - 31.9)
marine	<i>Alopias pelagicus</i>	326	6	2	43644.37	0.72 (0.02)	5.38 (5.34 - 5.56)	0.04 (0.02)	24.7 (11.1 - 344.7)
marine	<i>Alosa aestivalis</i>	1478	27	1	28963.06	0.6 (0.09)	3.52 (2.64 - 3.93)	0.1 (0.06)	167.85 (15.7 - 2451.6)
marine	<i>Alosa pseudoharengus</i>	5346	56	5	20271.23	0.63 (0.08)	3.02 (2.43 - 3.59)	0.09 (0.05)	139.2 (3.4 - 215642.3)
marine	<i>Alosa sapidissima</i>	4354	33	3	28833.74	0.75 (0.04)	5.18 (3.83 - 5.43)	0.04 (0.05)	360.6 (58.1 - 17953.9)
marine	<i>Alticus arnoldorum</i>	204	6	0	22976.26	0.74 (0.01)	5.15 (5.05 - 5.44)	0.01 (0.02)	631.7 (112.8 - 966.5)
marine	<i>Amphiprion bicinctus</i>	991	19	0	266176.72	0.75 (0.02)	5.02 (4.58 - 5.18)	0 (0.02)	894.7 (515.4 - 19560.5)
marine	<i>Amphiprion chrysopterus</i>	46	1	0	420583.66	0.6 (NA)	4.5 (4.5 - 4.5)	NA	30.2 (30.2 - 30.2)
marine	<i>Amphiprion melanopus</i>	426	12	12	0	0.51 (0.03)	3.35 (3.08 - 3.48)	0.02 (0.03)	155.35 (3.1 - 271.4)
marine	<i>Amphiprion sandaracinos</i>	160	1	0	420583.66	0.3 (NA)	2.49 (2.49 - 2.49)	NA	61.4 (61.4 - 61.4)
marine	<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	1336	30	5	373113.6	0.77 (0.03)	6.07 (5.82 - 8.05)	0 (0.01)	313.2 (2.7 - 4228.4)
marine	<i>Anguilla rostrata</i>	2160	38	2	40332.17	0.79 (0.03)	6.21 (5.77 - 6.36)	0 (0.01)	563.6 (74.6 - 23663.9)
marine	<i>Atractoscion aequidens</i>	396	2	0	381165.6	0.9 (0)	7.21 (7.19 - 7.23)	0.05 (0)	317.4 (317.4 - 317.4)
marine	<i>Carcharhinus amblyrhynchos</i>	112	9	9	0	0.76 (0.02)	5.57 (5.48 - 6.28)	0 (0.02)	106.4 (13.4 - 469.8)
marine	<i>Carcharhinus isodon</i>	369	6	0	50630.95	0.66 (0.01)	4.37 (4.29 - 4.44)	0.01 (0.01)	145.95 (113.8 - 178.1)

marine	<i>Carcharhinus limbatus</i>	812	10	0	174395.61	0.7 (0.03)	4.37 (4.06 - 5.13)	0.02 (0.02)	168.25 (39.8 - 2485.6)
marine	<i>Carcharhinus melanopterus</i>	1388	31	3	302456.19	0.54 (0.06)	3.44 (2.65 - 4.58)	0.09 (0.13)	55.7 (3.3 - 1096.8)
marine	<i>Carcharhinus sorrah</i>	700	6	0	137371.8	0.67 (0.02)	4.21 (4.04 - 4.92)	0.01 (0.02)	679.8 (78.1 - 5476.2)
marine	<i>Carcharodon carcharias</i>	166	2	0	129024.25	0.67 (0.04)	4.05 (3.92 - 4.18)	0.1 (0.06)	109.35 (16.1 - 202.6)
marine	<i>Centroscymnus coelolepis</i>	478	7	2	41140.65	0.79 (0.06)	5.46 (3.94 - 5.7)	0.03 (0.07)	156.4 (117.3 - 2136.5)
marine	<i>Chaetodon capistratus</i>	79	10	2	7869.94	0.71 (0.03)	5.33 (5.13 - 5.75)	0.02 (0.04)	38.5 (32 - 45)
marine	<i>Chaetodon guttatissimus</i>	43	2	0	279167.94	0.72 (0.01)	5.26 (5.18 - 5.34)	0.01 (0.01)	110.9 (110.9 - 110.9)
marine	<i>Chaetodon lunulatus</i>	263	7	3	132545.25	0.78 (0.02)	5.76 (4.99 - 6.07)	0.01 (0.02)	513.25 (110.4 - 1229.1)
marine	<i>Chaetodon punctatofasciatus</i>	25	2	0	259499.02	0.77 (0.05)	5.93 (5.82 - 6.03)	0.01 (0.02)	NA
marine	<i>Chaetodon trifascialis</i>	209	5	3	0	0.83 (0)	6.02 (5.81 - 6.09)	0.01 (0)	319.85 (73 - 566.7)
marine	<i>Chaetodon trifasciatus</i>	71	3	0	291186.27	0.8 (0.03)	6.13 (6.05 - 6.18)	0 (0.02)	NA
marine	<i>Clupea pallasii</i>	3600	18	14	0	0.86 (0.03)	6.28 (5.3 - 7.03)	0.03 (0.03)	552.4 (70.2 - 4239.3)
marine	<i>Diplodus vulgaris</i>	310	12	3	16899.28	0.82 (0.03)	6.15 (5.15 - 6.69)	0.03 (0.03)	113.65 (16.8 - 4618.6)
marine	<i>Elacatinus lori</i>	300	10	3	3990.19	0.83 (0.01)	6.38 (6.04 - 6.51)	0.01 (0.01)	142.35 (89.7 - 1102.3)
marine	<i>Engraulis encrasicolus</i>	724	17	0	15850.64	0.74 (0.03)	4.91 (4.26 - 5.52)	0.01 (0.04)	161.3 (28.4 - 2124)
marine	<i>Entosphenus tridentatus</i>	965	20	10	2309.49	0.58 (0.03)	3.27 (2.73 - 3.54)	0.02 (0.04)	66.1 (14.7 - 337.9)
marine	<i>Fundulus parvipinnis</i>	182	23	2	10173.58	0.46 (0.05)	3.64 (2.71 - 4.4)	0.2 (0.11)	34.1 (8 - 109.9)
marine	<i>Gadus morhua</i>	1236	13	4	1174.81	0.76 (0.01)	5.6 (5.36 - 5.77)	0 (0.01)	281.8 (100.5 - 3111.4)
marine	<i>Galeocerdo cuvier</i>	380	10	0	178983.31	0.64 (0.06)	4.45 (3.7 - 4.88)	0.09 (0.09)	218.5 (8.8 - 620.7)
marine	<i>Gasterosteus aculeatus</i>	545	14	0	8715.2	0.82 (0.05)	6.2 (5 - 6.73)	0.03 (0.05)	223.65 (53.2 - 470.5)
marine	<i>Gillichthys mirabilis</i>	311	29	5	10173.58	0.4 (0.17)	2.27 (1.44 - 4.65)	0.23 (0.28)	15.5 (3.2 - 122.1)
marine	<i>Gobiusculus flavescens</i>	10	1	0	2228.28	0.81 (NA)	6.16 (6.16 - 6.16)	0.02 (NA)	14.5 (14.5 - 14.5)
marine	<i>Gymnosarda unicolor</i>	73	6	4	0	0.62 (0.04)	4.32 (3.68 - 5.46)	0.02 (0.05)	27.9 (19.3 - 92.4)
marine	<i>Haemulon flavolineatum</i>	69	9	1	5443.93	0.74 (0.03)	5.41 (5.23 - 7.82)	0.01 (0.03)	79.35 (20.3 - 159.7)
marine	<i>Hypoplectrus nigricans</i>	66	9	1	7035.9	0.74 (0.02)	5.71 (5.22 - 6.06)	0 (0.03)	78.85 (32.1 - 454.8)
marine	<i>Kryptolebias marmoratus</i>	388	14	2	5687.48	0.44 (0.16)	2.94 (1.34 - 4.37)	0.43 (0.23)	10.7 (0.5 - 194.6)
marine	<i>Lethrinus nebulosus</i>	350	4	3	0	0.7 (0.04)	5.02 (4.81 - 5.11)	0.01 (0.03)	5.4 (3.6 - 501.6)
marine	<i>Limanda limanda</i>	3006	15	6	2465.93	0.73 (0.01)	5.59 (5.44 - 5.67)	0 (0.01)	3446.35 (159.4 - 15552.2)
marine	<i>Lithognathus lithognathus</i>	50	3	1	3696.26	0.81 (0)	5.5 (5.47 - 5.55)	0 (0.01)	NA
marine	<i>Merluccius capensis</i>	1477	9	0	53334.19	0.61 (0.03)	4.37 (4.22 - 4.96)	0.04 (0.04)	905.05 (71.7 - 5556.6)
marine	<i>Merluccius paradoxus</i>	1452	9	0	53334.19	0.69 (0.01)	4.92 (4.79 - 4.98)	0 (0.01)	4231.9 (2494.2 - 8249)
marine	<i>Naso unicornis</i>	562	7	0	23186.47	0.82 (0.01)	5.92 (5.81 - 6.14)	0 (0.01)	278.75 (26.6 - 638)

marine	<i>Nerophis lumbriciformis</i>	155	2	0	8257.92	0.79 (0.02)	5.28 (5.08 - 5.48)	NA	309.65 (274.7 - 344.6)
marine	<i>Oncorhynchus nerka</i>	1338	10	0	155265.82	0.72 (0.09)	4.98 (2.7 - 5.85)	0.06 (0.1)	83 (16.7 - 166.5)
marine	<i>Pachymetopon blochii</i>	50	2	0	26232.74	0.88 (0)	6.79 (6.77 - 6.81)	0 (0)	156.1 (156.1 - 156.1)
marine	<i>Paracirrhites arcatus</i>	264	7	5	0	0.83 (0.01)	5.94 (5.83 - 6.02)	0 (0.01)	1358.9 (619.1 - 11757.6)
marine	<i>Phycodurus eques</i>	49	6	4	0	0.33 (0.1)	2.08 (1.59 - 2.53)	0.36 (0.2)	1.1 (0.7 - 7.3)
marine	<i>Plectropomus leopardus</i>	1204	8	8	0	0.73 (0.02)	5.13 (4.84 - 5.26)	0 (0)	107.25 (48.7 - 663.7)
marine	<i>Plectropomus maculatus</i>	2477	7	7	0	0.79 (0)	5.33 (5.28 - 5.43)	0 (0)	147.1 (115.3 - 170.1)
marine	<i>Pomatomus saltatrix</i>	218	4	0	67646.37	0.75 (0.03)	5.66 (5.51 - 6.69)	0.1 (0.03)	93.5 (39 - 474)
marine	<i>Prionace glauca</i>	226	7	2	54375.59	0.74 (0.02)	5.16 (4.88 - 5.64)	0.01 (0.01)	91.45 (32.8 - 167.7)
marine	<i>Pristipomoides zonatus</i>	292	8	1	51354.46	0.32 (0.07)	2.33 (2.06 - 2.6)	0.01 (0.06)	43.25 (36.4 - 50.1)
marine	<i>Quietula y-cauda</i>	182	28	3	20138.06	0.56 (0.12)	5.48 (2.12 - 10.12)	0.19 (0.17)	32 (20.9 - 41.7)
marine	<i>Rhincodon typus</i>	406	7	0	91555.14	0.64 (0.02)	3.95 (3.53 - 4.16)	0.01 (0.03)	193.9 (37.3 - 303.1)
marine	<i>Rhizoprionodon acutus</i>	294	2	0	137371.8	0.56 (0.01)	3.64 (3.62 - 3.67)	0 (0.02)	79321.7 (79321.7 - 79321.7)
marine	<i>Salmo salar</i>	19740	279	36	26802.71	0.81 (0.06)	6.01 (2.21 - 13.18)	0.04 (0.03)	106.1 (6.3 - 10087.9)
marine	<i>Scomberomorus niphonius</i>	945	9	6	0	0.74 (0.01)	5.12 (5.11 - 5.34)	0 (0.01)	163 (52.6 - 600)
marine	<i>Scylliorhinus canicula</i>	834	10	2	18569.16	0.59 (0.03)	3.39 (3.24 - 3.96)	0.04 (0.05)	441.5 (55.2 - 1479.4)
marine	<i>Sebastes mentella</i>	117	8	0	130475.97	0.77 (0.04)	5.67 (5.19 - 6.27)	0.01 (0.04)	579.55 (75.5 - 1083.6)
marine	<i>Serranus cabrilla</i>	330	11	1	12559.7	0.71 (0.04)	4.71 (4.37 - 5.06)	0.03 (0.05)	94.7 (39.5 - 265.8)
marine	<i>Siganus fuscescens</i>	248	6	1	26711.81	0.71 (0.05)	5 (4.34 - 5.34)	0.1 (0.07)	128.1 (1.8 - 468)
marine	<i>Solea solea</i>	342	4	2	1900.45	0.77 (0.01)	5.05 (4.94 - 5.08)	0 (0.01)	370 (205.2 - 471.2)
marine	<i>Sparus aurata</i>	171	5	1	6062.13	0.86 (0.01)	6.42 (6.22 - 6.75)	0 (0.01)	72.75 (27.2 - 1424.1)
marine	<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	233	2	0	137371.8	0.76 (0.01)	5.13 (5.13 - 5.14)	0 (0.01)	405.6 (405.6 - 405.6)
marine	<i>Sprattus sprattus</i>	1285	13	2	6709.18	0.83 (0.03)	6.05 (5.47 - 6.65)	0.03 (0.03)	274.6 (125 - 658.2)
marine	<i>Stegastes partitus</i>	3463	14	2	11297.83	0.84 (0.04)	6.97 (6.1 - 7.08)	0.01 (0.02)	85.4 (18.5 - 2448.7)
marine	<i>Thalassoma bifasciatum</i>	81	11	1	7035.9	0.85 (0.02)	7.56 (6.99 - 14.09)	0.01 (0.02)	36.4 (36.4 - 36.4)
marine	<i>Totoaba macdonaldi</i>	310	5	0	135496.23	0.67 (0.01)	4.32 (4.19 - 4.39)	0 (0.01)	670.5 (306.9 - 1034.1)

1 **Table S2.** Model summaries for meta-regressions between species-specific protected area
2 effectiveness (species random slopes from models in Table 1) and species body size. The
3 number of species for which body size information was available is reported in parenthesis
4 after each genetic metric. The predictor column indicates from which model (protected area
5 status or distance) species-specific slope coefficients were summarized. Mean effect sizes are
6 given with 95% confidence intervals. R^2 is the variation in each genetic metric explained by the
7 predictors, an indicator of model fit. Confidence intervals overlapping 0 suggest that the
8 effectiveness of protected areas (in terms of status or distance) is unrelated to species body
9 size across terrestrial mammal or marine fish species. The effectiveness of protected area
10 status on allelic richness appears to decrease with respect to body size in terrestrial mammals.

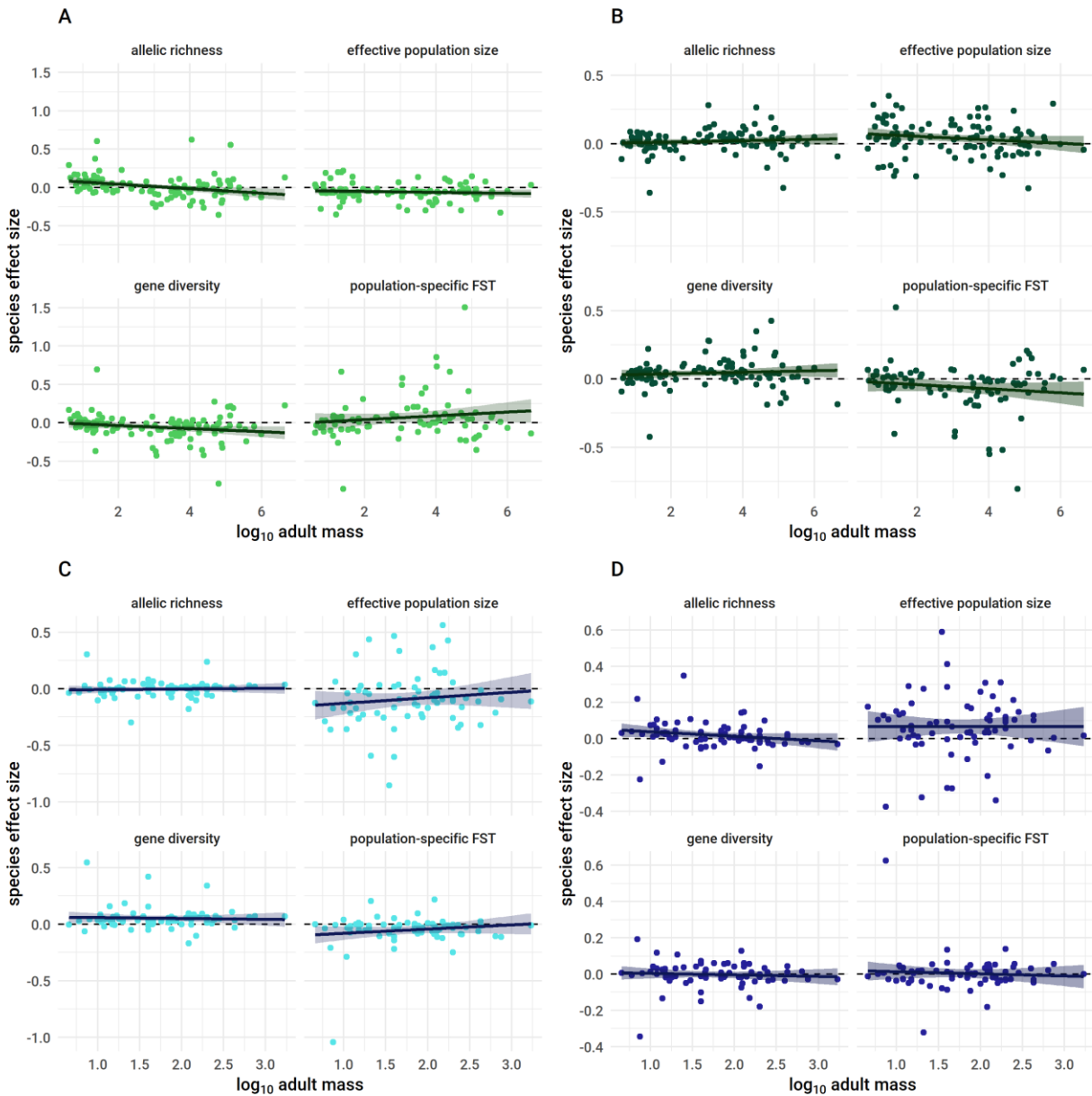
11

	predictor	mean (95% CI)	R²
terrestrial			
effective population size (84)	status	-0.01 (-0.05 - 0.01)	0.01
	distance	-0.02 (-0.04 - 0.00)	0.02
gene diversity (103)	status	-0.03 (-0.07 - 0.00)	0.04
	distance	0.01 (-0.01 - 0.03)	0.01
allelic richness (103)	status	-0.04 (-0.08 - -0.02)	0.08
	distance	0.01 (-0.01 - 0.03)	0.01
population-specific F_{ST} (102)	status	0.04 (-0.02 - 0.10)	0.02
	distance	-0.02 (-0.06 - 0.01)	0.02
marine			
effective population size (70)	status	0.03 (-0.03 - 0.09)	0.01
	distance	-0.00 (-0.04 - 0.04)	0.00
gene diversity (73)	status	-0.00 (-0.03 - 0.02)	0.00
	distance	-0.00 (-0.02 - 0.01)	0.00
allelic richness (73)	status	0.00 (-0.01 - 0.02)	0.00
	distance	-0.01 (-0.03 - 0.00)	0.04
population-specific F_{ST} (70)	status	0.02 (-0.01 - 0.06)	0.02
	distance	-0.01 (-0.03 - 0.02)	0.00

12

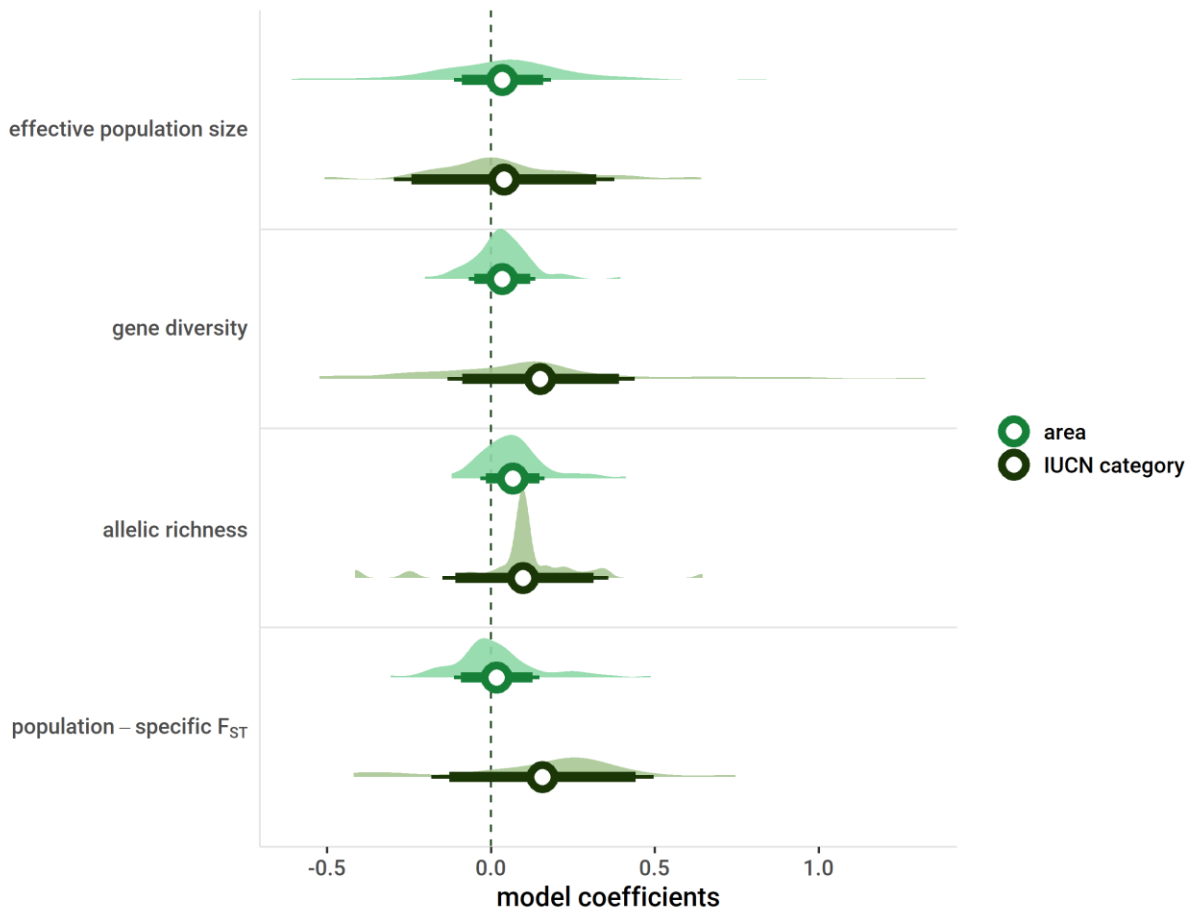
13 **Table S3.** Model summaries for relationships between the area and IUCN category of protected
 14 areas (predictors) on the genetic composition of terrestrial and marine sites. Sites were
 15 excluded if they were located outside protected areas or if they had missing data for area or
 16 IUCN status (i.e., *Not Applicable*, *Not Assigned*, or *Not Reported*). Sample size for each model
 17 are given in parentheses after each predictor. Mean overall (across-species) effect sizes for
 18 each predictor are given with 95% credible intervals. The model marginal log likelihood and
 19 Watanabe-Akaike information criterion (WAIC) are indicators of model fit. Credible intervals
 20 overlapping 0 suggest neither the area nor IUCN category of protected area are related to the
 21 genetic composition of populations across terrestrial mammal or marine fish species. The
 22 significant relationship between area and allelic richness in marine fish was driven by an outlier
 23 species with a strong negative effect; this relationship disappears when this species is
 24 removed.
 25

	predictor	mean (95% CI)	marginal log likelihood	WAIC
terrestrial				
effective population size	area (353)	0.03 (-0.11 - 0.18)	-433.74	811.16
	IUCN category (214)	0.04 (-0.30 - 0.38)	-276.39	515.35
gene diversity	area (353)	0.03 (-0.07 - 0.14)	-267.62	372.25
	IUCN category (214)	0.15 (-0.13 - 0.44)	-264.16	410.85
allelic richness	area (339)	0.07 (-0.03 - 0.16)	-259.66	523.14
	IUCN category (205)	0.10 (-0.15 - 0.36)	-231.48	311.07
population-specific F_{ST}	area (300)	0.02 (-0.11 - 0.15)	-462.52	811.62
	IUCN category (186)	0.16 (-0.18 - 0.50)	-296.49	562.97
marine				
effective population size	area (195)	0.06 (-0.14 - 0.25)	-191.66	328.83
gene diversity	area (195)	0.11 (-0.08 - 0.31)	-173.06	217.66
allelic richness	area (194)	-0.23 (-0.43 - -0.02)	-181.96	-740.23
population-specific F_{ST}	area (195)	0.01 (-0.25 - 0.27)	-234.83	419.44



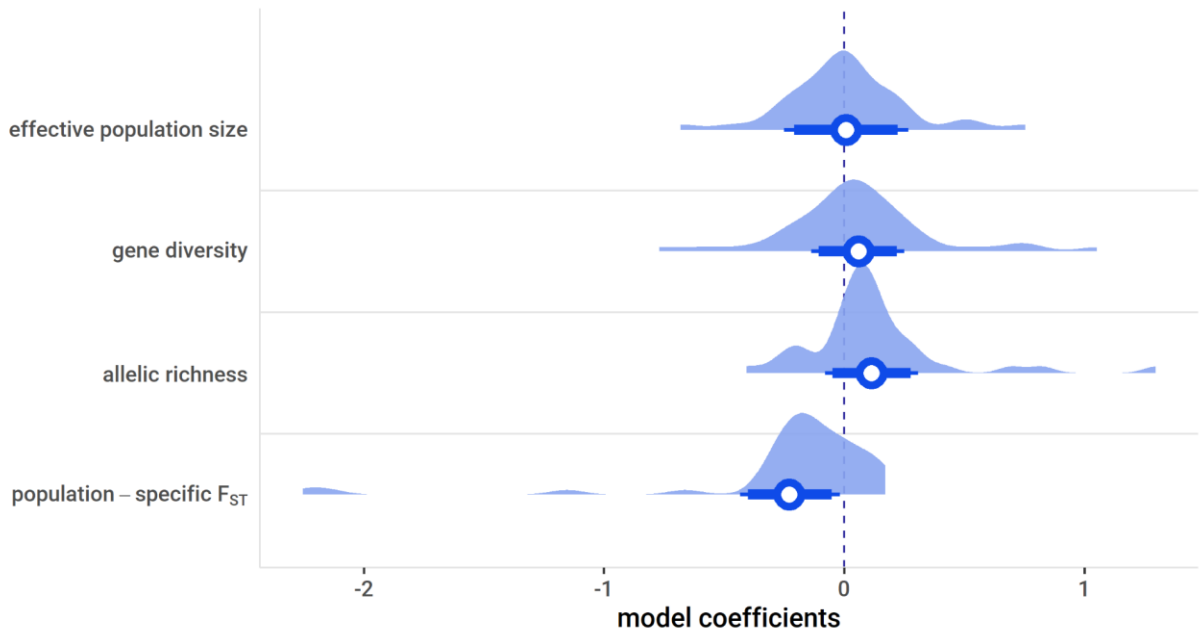
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29 **Figure S1.** Body size of terrestrial mammal and marine fish species vs. protected area
 30 effectiveness for terrestrial (A, B) and marine realms (C, D). Points represent species-specific
 31 effect sizes (random slopes) of protected area status (A, C) or distance to protected area (B, D)
 32 for each genetic metric. The dashed horizontal line indicates an effect size of 0 (no relationship
 33 between genetic composition and protected area status or distance). Positive effect sizes
 34 indicate the genetic metric was higher inside protected areas, or increased with increasing
 35 distance from protected areas. Body size was weakly negatively related to the effectiveness of
 36 protected area status for allelic richness (A), i.e., smaller species tended to have higher allelic
 37 richness inside protected areas. Body size was unrelated to effectiveness for other genetic
 38 metrics across both realms (see Table S3).



39
 40 **Figure S2.** Plotted model coefficients for the effects of protected area size and IUCN category
 41 (related to the extent of human influence) on the genetic composition of terrestrial mammal
 42 populations. Open circles indicate the overall effect size across species, flanked by 90 (bold
 43 lines) and 95% (narrow lines) credible intervals. Densities behind the open circle show the
 44 distribution of species-specific effects for each genetic metric. Area had a small negative effect
 45 on population-specific F_{ST} , however this was likely due to species- and site-specific factors
 46 driving strong negative effects. Neither area nor IUCN category was related to other genetic
 47 metrics for terrestrial mammal species.

48
 49



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51

52 **Figure S3.** Plotted model coefficients for the effects of protected area size on the genetic
53 composition of marine fish populations. Open circles indicate the overall effect size across
54 species, flanked by 90 (bold lines) and 95% (narrow lines) credible intervals. Densities behind
55 the open circle show the distribution of species-specific effects for each genetic metric. Area
56 had a small negative effect on population-specific F_{ST} , however this was due to the presence of
57 a strong outlier species; no effect is apparent when this species is removed. The size of
58 protected areas was not related to other genetic metrics for marine fish species.

59