Shortfalls and solutions for meeting national and global conservation area targets

Butchart, Stuart H. M.; Clarke, Martin; Smith, Robert J.; Sykes, Rachel E.; Scharlemann, Jörn P. W.; Harfoot, Mike; Buchanan, Graeme M.; Angulo, Ariadne; Balmford, Andrew; Bertzky, Bastian; Brooks, Thomas M.; Carpenter, Kent E.; Comeros-Raynal, Mia T.; Cornell, John; Ficetola, G. Francesco; Fishpool, Lincoln D. C.; Fuller, Richard A.; Geldmann, Jonas; Harwell, Heather; Hilton-Taylor, Craig; Hoffmann, Michael; Joolia, Ackbar; Joppa, Lucas; Kingston, Naomi; May, Ian; Milam, Amy; Polidoro, Beth; Ralph, Gina; Richman, Nadia; Rondinini, Carlo; Segan, Daniel B.; Skolnik, Benjamin; Spalding, Mark D.; Stuart, Simon N.; Symes, Andy; Taylor, Joseph; Visconti, Piero; Watson, James E. M.; Wood, Louisa; Burgess, Neil David

Published in:
Conservation Letters

DOI:
10.1111/conl.12158

Publication date:
2015

Document Version
Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Citation for published version (APA):
Butchart, S. H. M., Clarke, M., Smith, R. J., Sykes, R. E., Scharlemann, J. P. W., Harfoot, M., ... Burgess, N. D. (2015). Shortfalls and solutions for meeting national and global conservation area targets. DOI: 10.1111/conl.12158
Shortfalls and Solutions for Meeting National and Global Conservation Area Targets

Stuart H.M. Butchart¹, Martin Clarke¹, Robert J. Smith², Rachel E. Sykes², Jörn P.W. Scharlemann³, Mike Harfoot⁴, Graeme M. Buchanan⁴, Ariadne Angulo⁶, Andrew Balmford⁶, Bastian Bertzky⁵, Thomas M. Brooks⁵,¹²,¹¹, Kent E. Carpenter¹², Mia T. Comeros-Raynal¹², John Cornell¹¹, G. Francesco Ficetola¹³, Lincoln D.C. Fishpool¹, Richard A. Fuller¹⁴, Jonas Goldmann¹⁵, Heather Harwell¹²,¹⁶, Craig Hilton-Taylor¹⁷, Michael Hoffmann⁴,⁷, Ackbar Joolia¹⁷, Lucas Joppa⁵, Naomi Kingston⁴, Ian May¹, Amy Milam⁴, Beth Polidoro¹²,¹⁸, Gina Ralph¹², Nadia Richman¹⁹, Carlo Rondinini²⁰, Daniel B. Segan¹¹,²², Benjamin Skolnik²³, Mark D. Spalding²⁴, Simon N. Stuart⁴,⁷,²⁵,²⁶, Andy Symes¹, Joseph Taylor¹, Piero Visconti¹, James E.M. Watson²¹,²², Louisa Wood⁴,²⁷, & Neil D. Burgess⁴,¹⁵

¹ BirdLife International, Wellbrook Court, Cambridge, CB3 0NA, UK
² Durrell Institute of Conservation and Ecology, School of Anthropology and Conservation, University of Kent, Canterbury CT2 7NR, UK
³ School of Life Sciences, University of Sussex, Brighton BN1 9QG, UK
⁴ United Nations Environment Programme World Conservation Monitoring Centre, 219 Huntingdon Road, Cambridge CB3 0DL, UK
⁵ Microsoft Research Computational Science Laboratory, 21 Station Road, Cambridge CB1 1FB, UK
⁶ RSPB Centre for Conservation Science, RSPB Scotland, 2 Lochside View, Edinburgh Park, Edinburgh EH12 9DH, UK
⁷ International Union for Conservation of Nature, Rue Mauverney 28, 1196 Gland, Switzerland
⁸ Conservation Science Group, Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, Downing Street, Cambridge CB2 3EJ, UK
⁹ EuroBiodiv, Via Enrico Fermi 2749, 21027 Ispra (VA), Italy
¹⁰ World Agroforestry Center (ICRAF), University of the Philippines Los Baños, Laguna 4031, Philippines
¹¹ School of Geography and Environmental Studies, University of Tasmania, Hobart TAS 7001, Australia
¹² IUCN Marine Biodiversity Unit, Department of Biological Sciences, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, VA 23529, USA
¹³ Laboratoire d’Ecologie Alpine (LECA), Université Grenoble-Alpes, F-38000 Grenoble, France
¹⁴ School of Biological Sciences, University of Queensland, St Lucia, QLD 4072, Australia
¹⁵ Center for Macroecology, Evolution, and Climate, Natural History Museum of Denmark, University of Copenhagen, Universitetsparken 15, DK-2100 Copenhagen E, Denmark
¹⁶ Department of Organismal and Environmental Biology, Christopher Newport University, Newport News, VA 23606, USA
¹⁷ International Union for Conservation of Nature, 219 Huntingdon Road, Cambridge CB3 0DL, UK
¹⁸ New College of Interdisciplinary Arts and Sciences, Arizona State University, Phoenix, AZ 85069, USA
¹⁹ Institute of Zoology, Zoological Society of London, Regent’s Park, London NW1 4RY, UK
²⁰ Global Mammal Assessment Program, Department of Biology and Biotechnologies, Sapienza University of Rome, Viale dell’Università 32, 00185 Roma, Italy
²¹ Global Conservation Program, Wildlife Conservation Society, Bronx, NY 10460, USA
²² School of Geography, Planning and Environmental Management, University of Queensland, St Lucia, QLD 4072, Australia
²³ American Bird Conservancy, P.O. Box 249, 4249 Loudoun Avenue, The Plains, VA 20198-2237, USA
²⁴ The Nature Conservancy and Conservation Science Group, Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, Downing Street, Cambridge CB2 3EJ, UK
²⁵ Department of Biology and Biochemistry, University of Bath, Bath BA2 7AY, UK
²⁶ Al Ain Zoo, P.O. Box 45553, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates
²⁷ Department of Geography, University of Cambridge, Downing Place, Cambridge CB2 3EN, UK

Keywords
Aichi Targets; Alliance for Zero Extinction; Convention on Biological Diversity; Important Bird and Biodiversity Areas; IUCN Red List; Key Biodiversity Areas; protected areas.

Correspondence
Stuart Butchart, BirdLife International, Wellbrook Court, Cambridge, CB3 0NA, UK.
Tel: +44 1223 279839; Fax: +44 1223 277200.
E-mail: stuart.butchart@birdlife.org

Received
30 August 2014

Accepted
29 December 2014

Editor
doi: 10.1111/con.12158

Abstract
Governments have committed to conserving ≥17% of terrestrial and ≥10% of marine environments globally, especially “areas of particular importance for biodiversity” through “ecologically representative” Protected Area (PA) systems or other “area-based conservation measures”, while individual countries have committed to conserve 3–50% of their land area. We estimate that PAs currently cover 14.6% of terrestrial and 2.8% of marine extent, but 59–68% of ecoregions, 77–78% of important sites for biodiversity, and 57% of 25,380 species have inadequate coverage. The existing 19.7 million km² terrestrial PA network needs only 3.3 million km² to be added to achieve 17% terrestrial coverage. However, it would require nearly doubling to achieve, cost-efficiently, coverage targets for all countries, ecoregions, important sites, and species. Poorer countries have the largest relative shortfalls. Such extensive and rapid expansion of formal PAs is unlikely to be achievable. Greater focus is therefore needed on alternative approaches, including community- and privately managed sites and other effective area-based conservation measures.
Introduction

In 2010, in the face of ongoing biodiversity declines (Butchart et al. 2010), the 193 parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity adopted 20 “Aichi Targets” to be met by 2020 (CBD 2010). PAs spearhead global efforts to conserve nature (Chape et al. 2008), and Aichi Target 11 commits governments to conserving ≥17% of terrestrial and ≥10% of marine environments globally, especially “areas of particular importance for biodiversity” through “ecologically representative” PA systems or other “area-based conservation measures.” As contributions toward this, many nations have set their own national commitments for PA coverage (ranging from 3% to 50% of land area), of which 43 are lower than 17% and 36 are greater (Table S1). Almost halfway through the period for implementing these commitments, and following the outcomes of the recent Sixth World Parks Congress which called for countries to act urgently to make progress on their commitments (World Parks Congress 2014), it is now timely to assess progress.

Previous global assessments of PA coverage of biodiversity have focused narrowly on species (Rodrigues et al. 2004a, 2004b; Watson et al. 2010; Cantú-Salazar et al. 2013), sites (Ricketts et al. 2005; Butchart et al. 2012), ecoregions and biomes (Jenkins & Joppa 2009), threatened vertebrates and ecoregions (Venter et al. 2014), the marine environment (Spalding et al. 2013), forests (Schmitt et al. 2009), or mountains (Rodríguez-Rodríguez et al. 2011). To provide a more comprehensive and integrated evaluation, we analyzed PA coverage of terrestrial and marine environments, countries, ecoregions, biogeographic provinces, biomes, and realms, 11,807 important sites for biodiversity, and 25,380 species’ distributions (covering three times as many taxonomic groups as previous studies, and representing the first evaluation for marine taxa). We then used systematic conservation planning software to identify the extent to which the current global PA network needs to be augmented to meet Aichi Target 11 global and national targets.

Methods

Details of the spatial data sets we used are given in Table S2. For “areas of particular importance for biodiversity” as referred to in Aichi Target 11, we assessed the only two global site networks that have been identified using standardized criteria (Key Biodiversity Areas): Important Bird and Biodiversity Areas (IBAs; 11,220 sites of global avian significance: Butchart et al. 2012) and Alliance for Zero Extinction Sites (AZEs; 587 sites holding the last remaining population of one or more highly threatened species: Ricketts et al. 2005). For species, we assessed only those groups in which all species have been assessed (and mapped) for the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species (IUCN 2012).

We set “representation targets” for the percentage of each species’ distribution to be covered by PAs, following Rodrigues et al. (2004a), Watson et al. (2010), and Venter et al. (2014), scaling targets by species’ range size, decreasing from 100% for species with distributions <1,000 km$^2$ to 10% for species with distributions >250,000 km$^2$, and linearly interpolated on a log-linear scale between these two thresholds. We capped the area to be protected at 1 million km$^2$ for species with extremely large ranges (>10 million km$^2$, Figure S1), because landscape-scale conservation through sectoral policy interventions is generally more appropriate for such species. This cap affected 3.1% of species ($n = 789$, mainly birds and mammals). The target was treated as having been met if PA coverage was ≥95% of the target area.

To assess ecological representativeness of the PA network, we assumed a uniform target of 17% protection for each terrestrial ecoregion (Olson et al. 2001), given this is the approach recommended in guidance to CBD parties and widely used to assess progress toward achieving Aichi Target 11 (Woodley et al. 2012; CBD 2014; Juffe-Bignoli et al. 2014; Tittensor et al. 2014; Venter et al. 2014; Watson et al. 2014).

We projected all spatial data into Mollweide equal area projection, and processed in vector format using ESRI ArcGIS v10, calculating PA coverage through spatial intersections of PAs and conservation features (Tables S3 and S4). For all terrestrial coverage statistics, we followed established practice (e.g., Juffe-Bignoli et al. 2014; Venter et al. 2014) by excluding the Antarctic ecoregions “Marielandia Antarctic tundra” and “Maudlandia Antarctic desert” (Olson et al. 2001).

We estimated temporal trends in PA coverage using data on the year of PA establishment recorded in the January 2013 version of the World Database on Protected Areas. As this was unknown for 14.3% of terrestrial and 8.6% of marine PAs, we randomly assigned a year from another PA within the same country, or for countries with less than five PAs with known year of establishment, from all terrestrial or marine PAs, and then repeated this procedure 1,000 times, and plotted the median and 95% confidence intervals.

To identify the extent of additional land requiring conservation to meet different target-setting scenarios in the terrestrial environment, we built on the approaches of previous studies (e.g., Pressey et al. 1993; Faith et al. 2001; Rodrigues et al. 2004a; Watson et al. 2010; Pouzols et al. 2014; Venter et al. 2014), using the Marxan conservation
planning software (Ball et al. 2009). This uses a simulated annealing approach to identify near-optimal portfolios of planning units that meet the specified conservation feature targets while minimizing costs (Ball et al. 2009). We used human population size as the planning unit cost (as a surrogate for opportunity cost and difficulty of establishing PAs in any new areas to be conserved), so that heavily populated planning units tended to be avoided unless they were essential for target attainment. This part of our analysis was restricted to terrestrial environments because comparable cost data are unavailable for marine environments.

We used a 30 × 30 km grid layer (with the scale chosen to balance the trade-offs between the coarseness of the underlying data sets, the size of most PAs, and the risk of commission errors), combined with country/territory boundaries and calculated the area of "conservation features" (species, ecoregion, and country) found in each of the resultant 150,700 planning units, as well as the area in each planning unit of each of these conservation features covered by PAs and by unprotected IBAs or AZEs. We used the 1-km resolution Global Rural-Urban Mapping Project (GRUMPv1) data set (CIESIN et al. 2011) in ArcGIS to calculate for each planning unit the total human population size, and the human population size within PAs and within unprotected IBAs or AZEs.

Finally, we used these data to produce two conservation planning systems. The first listed for each planning unit the unprotected area of each conservation feature and the human population size on this unprotected land. It also included one “protected” planning unit that listed the total area of each conservation feature falling within the global PA network, and the total human population size found in the global PA network. This “protected” planning unit was set as automatically selected in Marxan, so the software would identify additional planning units that met the specified targets by complementing the existing PA network. The second planning system was identical, but combined unprotected IBAs and AZEs with PAs.

We assessed the extent of land (in addition to existing PAs) requiring conservation to achieve the following targets, adding them cumulatively in six different scenarios: (1) 17% global coverage; (2) country-specific national targets; (3) 17% coverage of each ecoregion; (4) 100% coverage of all unprotected IBAs/AZEs; (5) species-specific targets for all threatened amphibians, birds, crayfish, and mammals; (6) species-specific targets for all nonthreatened amphibians, birds, crayfish, and mammals. For each scenario, we ran Marxan 100 times, each with 100 million iterations. We identified which of the 100 portfolios had the lowest cost and determined its total area.

Our Marxan analyses were designed to estimate the area of land requiring effective conservation at a global scale. Individual country requirements are best assessed through national-scale analyses incorporating implementation-relevant factors that are best known and mapped at local scales (Smith et al. 2009). To help identify countries where such national analyses are a priority because the relative degree of PA expansion needed is likely to be largest, we calculated the percentage of planning units in each country that were selected by Marxan in scenario 6 (i.e., meeting targets for global, national, ecoregion, site, and species coverage). As the spatial resolution of our analysis led to potentially large commission errors for very small countries and territories, we focused on countries with an area of at least 20,000 km². We used Spearman’s Rank tests to determine whether the per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of each country was correlated with the percentage of planning units selected within it, its adjusted species richness and adjusted restricted-range species richness. These measures of richness used the data from the Marxan analyses, with restricted-range species defined as those with a global range of ≤50,000 km², and richness values adjusted by dividing by $A'$, where $A$ is country area, and $z$ is 0.184 (derived from the species-area relationship using the data in our analysis).

Results

We estimate that PAs cover c.14.6% of terrestrial and 2.8% of marine environments, with 40% of countries and territories protecting ≥17% of their terrestrial area, but only 13% protecting ≥10% of marine areas under their national jurisdiction, and 0.2% of international waters beyond national jurisdictions protected (Figure 1, Table S3). Only 38% of countries have met their nationally set target for terrestrial PA coverage. Just 41% of terrestrial and 32% of marine (coastal/nearshore) ecoregions have met target levels of coverage, while only one-fifth of IBAs and AZEs are completely covered by PAs (Figures 1 and S2, Table S3). Finally, less than half of mammals, amphibians, marine bony fishes, cartilaginous fishes, lobsters and crayfish, mangroves and seagrasses have a sufficient proportion of their distributions covered by PAs to meet species-specific targets scaled by range size (Figure 1, Tables S3 and S4). PA coverage of suitable habitat within species’ distributions was only marginally higher (Table S5).

Hence, although there has been substantial recent growth in PA coverage, in both absolute area (by 92% for terrestrial and 513% for marine environments since 1990) and coverage of biodiversity features (Figure 2),
this expansion has been inadequately targeted, and a considerable shortfall remains across the multiple elements of Target 11. To estimate the area of land required to meet this shortfall in the terrestrial environment, we considered the requirements for each element of Target 11 in turn. First, we found that 3.3 million km$^2$ of land is required in addition to the existing 19.7 million km$^2$ of PAs to meet the target of 17% global terrestrial PA coverage (excluding Antarctica, Figure 3). Second, 7.3 million km$^2$ outside existing PAs is needed to achieve 17% global coverage and also meet each country’s nationally set coverage target, or 10.5 million km$^2$ to meet these
and also cover 17% of each ecoregion. Third, to achieve these three objectives and also completely cover all documented important sites for biodiversity would require an additional 12.0 million km$^2$ (i.e., including 3.8 million km$^2$ of unprotected IBAs/AZEs). Finally, meeting species-specific coverage targets for all (mapped) threatened or all terrestrial species as well would require 14.8 or 17.9 million km$^2$, respectively. Thus, the optimal solution equates to almost doubling the extent of the PA network to cover 27.9% of the global terrestrial area (Figure 3).

Costa Rica, Ecuador, and the Dominican Republic require the largest proportional increases in extent of land requiring conservation, with >53% of planning units within them requiring the establishment of conservation areas (Figure 4, Table S1). Countries requiring the largest proportional increases in conservation areas tended to have lower per capita GDP (Figure 4, $N = 151$, $r_t = -0.205$, $P = 0.011$), probably because countries with lower per capita GDP had higher levels of adjusted species richness ($N = 151$, $r_t = -0.476$, $P < 0.001$) and adjusted restricted-range species richness ($N = 151$, $r_t = -0.254$, $P = 0.002$).

Exploring the sensitivity of our estimates to different assumptions, we found that the total percentage of land requiring conservation was unchanged if the target area for each species was capped at 0.5 million km$^2$ instead of 1 million km$^2$, and reduced from 27.9% to 24.5% if the target for each species was halved, suggesting that our estimates were not substantially inflated by the representation targets set for broad-ranging species. Similarly, if the target for PA coverage of each ecoregion is reduced to 10% (as previously adopted by CBD parties; CBD 2004), the total percentage of land requiring conservation is reduced only marginally to 27.0%, while if the target for ecological representativeness is set at a larger spatial scale (17% coverage of each of 66 biome-realms, each of which represents an aggregation of up to 78 ecoregions; Olson et al. 2001), the total is reduced to 27.1%, indicating that our overall result is robust to varying interpretations of the text of Aichi Target 11.
Discussion

Meeting Target 11 will require greatly accelerated recognition and designation of effective conservation areas, with newly established or expanded reserves much better targeted toward important sites for biodiversity (Ricketts et al. 2005; Butchart et al. 2012) and areas that provide representative coverage of ecoregions and species (Venter et al. 2014). Those countries with the largest percentage of planning units requiring additional conservation areas to be established are priorities for local-scale conservation planning analyses, building on the data sets used here, to identify specific site priorities. Effective conservation of such sites should be integrated into these countries’ National Biodiversity Strategies and Action Plans.

Some of the shortfall in PA coverage we found could be reduced simply through countries better documenting existing PAs (some lack spatial boundaries, and details of recently designated sites are often omitted), and improving their reporting of privately owned PAs (Lopoukhine & Dias 2012; Visconti et al. 2013).

However, even though 36 countries have set coverage targets >17%, the required substantial growth in land under conservation is highly unlikely to be achieved through further designation of formal PAs alone. Other “effective area-based conservation measures,” as mentioned in Target 11 (CBD 2010; Jonas et al. 2014), will be essential, including locally managed marine (Govan 2009) or forest areas (Porter-Boland et al. 2012) and other indigenous and community-conserved areas (ICCA Registry 2014), sacred sites (Dudley et al. 2009), conservation easements and land trusts (Rissman et al. 2007), and sustainably managed forestry or fisheries (Lopoukhine & Dias 2012).

Species distribution maps are susceptible to commission errors, which may have affected our estimates of PA coverage, but (1) we used finer resolution maps than in previous studies (e.g., Hurlbert & Jetz 2007); (2) the species-specific representation targets we examined were defined as a proportion of the extent of occurrence (rather than area of occupancy); and (3) using human population density as a cost metric should reduce commission errors because selected areas are less likely to be those where species are absent owing to anthropogenic pressures like hunting or habitat loss. Our use of 30 × 30 km grid cells may also have introduced commission errors. However, because data on species’ distributions and the location of their important sites are unavailable for most taxa, the shortfall in land for conservation is likely to be even larger than we estimated.

We did not address aspects of Target 11 relating to coverage of areas of importance for ecosystem services, and the requirement that PAs are “effectively and equitably managed,” “well connected,” and “integrated into the wider landscapes and seascapes” (CBD 2010). Key among these additional elements is the requirement for effective management of existing conservation areas (Leverington et al. 2010), with 77% of countries failing to achieve this currently (Coad et al. 2013). Species’ populations and habitat extent/condition continue to decline within PA boundaries, owing to inadequate resources and increasing pressures such as expanding agriculture (Mora & Sale 2011; Laurance et al. 2012, 2014; Geldmann et al. 2013). Degradation of PAs, in
combination with an increasing trend of PA degazettlement and downsizing ("PADDD"), makes the challenge of meeting Aichi Target 11 even greater (Mascia et al. 2014, Watson et al. 2014).

Our terrestrial results are likely to be mirrored in the marine environment, where an additional concern is that recent progress in PA coverage has largely been driven by a handful of extremely large PAs (Spalding et al. 2013), while enforcement remains a problem across many sites (Dulvy 2013). Ongoing processes to identify “ecologically and biologically significant areas” (informed by IBAs/AZEs) at sea (Dunn et al. 2014) should help efforts to achieve the marine aspects of Target 11, as might large-scale area-based fisheries interventions (White & Costello 2014).

Expanded PA networks, augmented by alternative approaches, and more effective management of both will require investments in area-based conservation to be scaled-up substantially (at least 10-fold according to McCarthy et al. 2012). International financing mechanisms such as the Global Environment Facility should consider targeting increased resources at the poorer countries we identified (Table S1), as having the greatest need for expanded conservation areas, given the inequalities in wealth and the scale of these needs. Addressing these resource needs is an urgent imperative given the current pace of biodiversity loss (Butchart et al. 2010; Tittensor et al. 2014; Watson et al. 2014; WWF 2014).

Our results represent the most detailed assessment to date of PA coverage of biodiversity and of the expansion in land for conservation needed to meet Aichi Target 11. Delivering the World Parks Congress’s “Promise of Sydney” (World Parks Congress 2014), including meeting national commitments and the multiple components of Aichi Target 11, will require considerably more land than the 17% headline figure for terrestrial coverage. A twin-track approach of better-targeted PA expansion alongside increased effort to develop and implement other effective area-based approaches (Jonas et al. 2014) is needed, integrated through improved prioritization, better international coordination (Pouzols et al. 2014), and greater resourcing.
Acknowledgments

We are grateful to the many individuals and organizations who contribute to the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, WDPA, or to identification of IBAs or AZEs. We thank A. Bennett for help with data collation and N. Dulvy, W. Laurance, and D. Faith for helpful comments on an earlier draft. This work was supported by the Cambridge Conservation Initiative Collaborative Fund and Arcadia.

Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article at the publisher's web site:

Table S1. National targets for terrestrial conservation area coverage, current percentage coverage by PAs and unprotected IBAs/AZEs, and the percentage of planning units requiring the establishment of conservation areas for each country/territory, ranked from highest to lowest values for the last of these metrics.

Table S2. Spatial data sets used in the analyses.

Table S3. Current coverage by the world’s protected areas.

Table S4. Current coverage by the world’s protected areas and unprotected important sites for biodiversity conservation.

Table S5. Current coverage by the world’s protected areas of suitable habitat within the distributions of mammals, birds, and amphibians.

Figure S1. Cumulative range size distribution for birds (red bars), mammals (blue bars), and amphibians (green bars), to illustrate the approach for setting representation targets scaled by taxonomic group.

Figure S2. Temporal trends in mean percentage area of (a) terrestrial (red) and marine (blue) ecoregions; and (b) IBAs (green) and AZEs (violet) covered by PAs.

Supplementary Data File: Protected area coverage of species, sites, countries, ecoregions, biomes, realms, and provinces (Excel file).

References

Ball, I.R., Possingham, H.P. & Watts, M. (2009). Marxan and relatives: software for spatial conservation prioritisation. pages 185-195 in A. Moilanen, K.A. Wilson, H.P. Possingham, editors. Spatial conservation prioritisation: quantitative methods and computational tools. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Butchart, S.H.M., Scharlemann, J.P.W., Evans, M. et al. (2012). Protecting important sites for biodiversity contributes to meeting global conservation targets. *PLoS ONE*, 7, e32529.

Butchart, S.H.M., Walpole, M., Collen, B. et al. (2010). Global biodiversity: indicators of recent declines. *Science*, 328, 1164-1168.

Cantú-Salazar, L., Orme, C.D.L., Rasmussen, P.C., Blackburn, T.M. & Gaston, K.J. (2013). The performance of the global protected area system in capturing vertebrate geographic ranges. *Biodivers. Conserv.*, 22, 1033-1047.

CBD. (2004). COP Decision VII/30. Strategic Plan: future evaluation of progress. Available at: http://www.cbd.int/cop/?id=7767. Accessed 8 December 2014.

CBD. (2010). COP Decision XI.2. Strategic plan for biodiversity 2011-2020. Available at: http://www.cbd.int/cop/?id=12268. Accessed 1 October 2013.

CBD. (2014). Global biodiversity outlook-4. CBD, Montreal.

Chape, S., Spalding, M.D., Jenkins, M.D., editors. (2008). *The World’s protected areas: status, values, and prospects in the twenty-first century*. University California Press, Berkeley.

CIESIN, Columbia University, International Food Policy Research Institute, The World Bank & Centro Internacional de Agricultura Tropical. (2011). *Global rural-urban mapping project, version 1 (GRUMPv1): population density grid*. NASA Socioeconomic Data and Applications Center, Palisades, NY.

Coad, L., Leverington, F., Burgess, N.D. et al. (2013). Progress towards the CBD protected area management effectiveness targets. *Parks*, 19, 13-24.

Dudley, N., Higgins-Zogbil, L. & Mansourian, S. (2009). The links between protected areas, faiths, and sacred natural sites. *Conserv. Biol.*, 23, 568-577.

Dulvy, N.K. (2013). Super-sized MPAs and the marginalization of species conservation. *Aquat. Conserv. Mar. Freshwater Ecosyst.*, 23, 357-362.

Dunn, D.C., Ardron, J., Bax, N. et al. (2014). The Convention on Biological Diversity’s ecologically or biologically significant areas: origins, development, and current status. *Mar. Policy*, 49, 137-145.

Faith, D.P., Margules, C.R. & Walker, P.A. (2001). A biodiversity conservation plan for Papua New Guinea based on biodiversity trade-offs analysis. *Pac. Conserv. Biol.*, 6, 304-324.

Geldmann, J., Barnes, M., Coad, L. et al. (2013). Effectiveness of terrestrial protected areas in reducing habitat loss and population declines. *Biol. Conserv.*, 161, 230-238.

Govan, H. (2009). Status and potential of locally-managed marine areas in the Pacific Island region: meeting nature conservation and sustainable livelihood targets through wide-spread implementation of LMMAs. *SPREP/WWF/WorldFish-Reefbase/CRISP*, Suva.

Hurlbert, A.H. & Jetz, W. (2007). Species richness, hotspots, and the scale dependence of range maps in ecology and conservation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, 104, 13384-13389.

ICCA Registry. (2014). *Global indigenous and community conservation areas registry website*. Available at: http://www.iccaregistry.org. Accessed 1 June 2014.
IUCN. (2012). IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Available at: http://www.iucnredlist.org/. Accessed 1 October 2012.

Jenkins, C. & Joppa, L.N. (2009). Expansion of the global protected area system. *Biol. Conserv.*, 142, 2166-2174.

Jonas, H.D., Barbuto, V., Jonas H.C. *et al.* (2014). New steps of change: looking beyond protected areas to consider other effective area-based conservation measures. *Parks*, 20, 111-128.

Juffe-Bignoli, D., Burgess, N.D., Bingham, H. *et al.* (2014). Protected Planet Report 2014. UNEP-WCMC, Cambridge, UK.

Laurance, W.F., Sayer, J. & Cassman, K.G. (2014). Agricultural expansion and its impacts on tropical nature. *Trends Ecol. Evol.*, 29, 107-116.

Laurance, W.F., Useche, D.C., Rendeiro, J. *et al.* (2012). Averting biodiversity collapse in tropical forest protected areas. *Nature*, 489, 290-294.

Leverington, F., Lemos Costa, K., Pavese, H., Lisle, A. & Hockings, M. (2010). A global analysis of protected area management effectiveness. *Environ. Manage.*, 46, 685-698.

Lopoukhine, N. & de Souza Dias, B.F. (2012). What does Target 11 really mean? *Parks*, 18, 5-8.

Mascia, M.B., Pailler, S., Krithivasan, R. *et al.* (2014). Protected area downgrading, downsizing, and degazettement (PADDD) in Africa, Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean, 1900–2010. *Biol. Conserv.*, 169, 355-361.

McCarthy, D., Donald, P.F., Scharlemann, J.P.W. *et al.* (2012). Financial costs of meeting global biodiversity conservation targets: current spending and unmet needs. *Science*, 338, 946-949.

Mora, C. & Sale, P.F. (2011). Ongoing global biodiversity loss and the need to move beyond protected areas: a review of the technical and practical shortcomings of protected areas on land and sea. *Mar. Ecol. Progr. Ser.*, 434, 251-266.

Olson, D.M., Dinerstein, E.D., Wikramanayake, E. *et al.* (2001). Terrestrial ecoregions of the world: a new map of life on Earth. *BioScience*, 51, 933-938.

Pressey, R.L., Humphries, C.J., Margules, C.R. *et al.* (1993). Beyond opportunism: key principles for systematic reserve selection. *Trends Ecol. Evol.*, 8, 124-128.

Porter-Bolland, L., Ellis, E.A., Guariguata, M.R. *et al.* (2012). Community managed forests and forest protected areas: an assessment of their conservation effectiveness across the tropics. *Forest Ecol. Manage.*, 268, 6-17.

Pouzols, F.M., Toivonen, T., Di Minin, E. *et al.* (2014). Global protected area expansion is compromised by projected land-use and parochialism. *Nature*, doi:10.1038/nature14032.

Ricketts, T.H., Dinerstein, E., Boucher, T. *et al.* (2005). Pinpointing and preventing imminent extinctions. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, 102, 18497-18501.

Rissman, A.R., Lozier, L., Comendant, T. *et al.* (2007). Conservation easements: biodiversity protection and private use. *Conserv. Biol.*, 21, 709-718.

Rodrigues, A.S.L., Akçakaya, H.R., Andelman, S.J. *et al.* (2004a). Global gap analysis: priority regions for expanding the global protected-area network. *BioScience*, 54, 1092-1100.

Rodrigues, A.S.L., Andelman S.J., Bakarr M.I. *et al.* (2004b). Effectiveness of the global protected area network in representing species diversity. *Nature*, 428, 640-643.

Rodriguez-Rodriguez, R., Bomhard, B., Butchart, S.H.M. & Foster, M. (2011). Progress towards targets for protected area coverage in mountains: a multi-scale assessment. *Biol. Conserv.*, 144, 2978-2983.

Schmitt, C.B., Burgess, N.D., Coad, L. *et al.* (2009). Global analysis of the protection status of the world’s forests. *Biol. Conserv.*, 142, 2122-2130.

Smith, R.J., Verissimo, D., Leader-Williams, N. *et al.* (2009). Let the locals lead. *Nature*, 462, 280-281.

Spalding, M.D., Melian, I., Milam, A., Fitzgerald, C. & Hale, L.Z. (2013). Protecting marine spaces: global targets and changing approaches. in *Ocean Yearbook*, 27, 213-248.

Tittensor, D.P., Walpole, M., Hill, S.L.L. *et al.* (2014). A mid-term analysis of progress towards international biodiversity targets. *Science*, 346, 241-244.

Venter, O., Fuller, R.A., Segan, D.B. *et al.* (2014). Targeting global protected area expansion for imperilled biodiversity. *PLoS Biol.*, 12, e1001891.

Visconti, P., Di Marco, M., Álvarez-Romero, J.G. *et al.* (2013). Effects of errors and gaps in spatial data sets on assessment of conservation progress. *Conserv. Biol.*, 27, 1000-1010.

Watson, J.E.M., Dudley, N., Segan, D.B. & Hockings, M. (2014). The performance and potential of protected areas. *Nature*, 515, 19-25.

Watson, J.E.M., Evans, M.C., Carwardine, J. *et al.* (2010). The capacity of Australia’s protected-area system to represent threatened species. *Conserv. Biol.*, 25, 324-332.

White, C. & Costello, C. (2014). Close the high seas to fishing? *PLoS Biol.*, 12, e1001826.

Woodley, S., Bertzky, B., Crawhall, N. *et al.* (2012) Meeting Aichi Target 11: what does success look like for protected area systems? *Parks* 18, 23-36.

World Parks Congress. (2014). The promise of Sydney: innovative approaches to reaching conservation goals. Available at: http://worldparkscongress.org/drupal/node/140. Accessed 8 December 2014.

WWF. (2014). *Living planet report 2014*. WWF, Gland, Switzerland.