

Geographical variations in the sensitivity of terrestrial biodiversity to anthropogenic pressures

Author: Kayleigh Greenwood, MSc CMEE (kg21@ic.ac.uk)

Internal Supervisor: Dr James Rosindell, Imperial College London (j.rosindell@imperial.ac.uk)

External Supervisor: Dr Joss Wright, University of Oxford (joss.wright@oii.ox.ac.uk)

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14 **Declaration**

15 Data was obtained from existing online databases, and therefore I was not responsible for data
16 processing or cleaning.

17 Were any mathematical models developed by you or by your supervisor?

18 What role, if any, did your supervisor play in developing the analyses presented?

19 Introduction

20 Biodiversity is important because it supports life on earth via the ecosystem services provided. When
21 ecosystems have their biodiversity intact, they can provide services such as clean air and polli-
22 nation, which makes the earth habitable for humans. Biodiversity loss leads to unstable environ-
23 nments, as ecosystems with low biodiversity are less resistant to change. Biodiversity loss diminishes
24 ecosystem productivity [Duffy et al., 2017] and threatens all life on earth, including human well-being
25 [Díaz et al., 2006].

26
27 Biodiversity is impacted by both natural and anthropogenic pressures [Nobel et al., 2020], how-
28 ever any mention of 'biodiversity pressures' in this study refers only to the latter. Understanding the
29 impacts of anthropogenic pressures on biodiversity is important for creating accurate environmental
30 policies and conservation strategies, and therefore more effective ones. Aside from traditional ef-
31 forts for protecting biodiversity, another response to the biodiversity crisis [Ogar et al., 2020] is the
32 beginning of a global movement towards sustainable business and biodiversity-conscious investment
33 [PRI, 2020][Forum, 2020][WWF, 2020].

34
35 Assessing the impact that investments have on biodiversity involves calculating their contributions
36 towards the main pressures (e.g. deforestation, pollution etc.). It is also useful to know where in the
37 world these effects are taking place, so that we know how much biodiversity is at risk (as the worlds'
38 biodiversity is not equally distributed). An abundance of research has been done about the impacts
39 that pressures have on biodiversity, and also about the distribution of biodiversity around the world.
40 Although there is a good understanding of how biodiversity generally reacts to pressures, it is well
41 known that there is variation in how each species responds. It would be useful to include this sensi-
42 tivity variation when analysing how biodiversity responds to pressures. Though useful, just knowing
43 sensitivity at the species level is impractical when it comes to large scale impact assessments. For
44 this reason, if countries/regions on the whole differ in their sensitivity to biodiversity pressures, this
45 information could make models / predictions about the impact of pressures more accurate.

46
47 Despite obtaining the location and magnitude of the pressure on biodiversity, it is not possible to
48 predict its' impacts without having information on how local biodiversity will respond.

49 Is this enough to accurately understand the impacts of the pressures on biodiversity? Deforest-
50 ing one unit of land in various forests around the world would have different impacts on biodiversity
51 depending on how many species there were in that area, but the question should be asked about
52 whether the biodiversity in these forests differ in their sensitivity to the pressures.

53
54 In the interest of making estimates about biodiversity impact more accurate, taking geographic
55 variations in sensitivity to the pressure could increase accuracy of predictions about how biodiversity-
56 friendly certain actions, and therefore investments, would be.

57
58 Given that anthropogenic impact on the environment is worldwide [Plumptre et al., 2021], the
59 question should be raised of whether the geographic location of biodiversity pressures affects their
60 impact on global biodiversity. In other words, are some parts of the world more sensitive to biodiver-
61 sity pressures than others? For example, does the location that a biodiversity pressure takes place

62 change its impact on global biodiversity (regardless of magnitude)? If such geographic differences
63 exist, they should be taken into account when attributing biodiversity-related merit to investments.
64 Better understanding of biodiversity pressures will aid a better understanding of the implications of
65 investments on natural ecosystems .

66

Literature Review

Literature is abundant on how biodiversity varies by country reference, and why this may be, including how various direct and indirect pressures correlate with these differences [Sunday et al., 2015], [Ament et al., 2019] melusine's paper. Various studies have mapped the magnitude of biodiversity pressures across regions/biomes [Millennium ecosystem assessment, 2005] [Sala et al., 2000], and their spatial couplings [Bowler et al., 2020], however to our knowledge, no prior research has studied geographic differences in sensitivity to such pressures. Bowler et al.(2020) concluded that despite any patterns observed in magnitude of pressures, there will always be variation in biodiversity response to such pressures due to species' varying sensitivities. Research about species-specific sensitivities in each ecosystem is useful for local conservation policy however it would be more useful for large scale projects/policies to have information about the sensitivity of regions/biomes on the whole. The current assumption in literature is that whilst magnitude of exposure varies, sensitivity to biodiversity pressures is constant across biomes [Sala et al., 2000], however there is no research to support this assumption. Hence, studying variation in biome sensitivity would be useful in comparing the impact of pressures in these areas on global biodiversity.

There is adequate research to prove that inter-species responses to biodiversity pressures vary find reference. Given that species vary in their sensitivity, and therefore response, to biodiversity pressures, and that each region of the world comprises different combinations of species groups find reference, there is reason to believe that sensitivity to biodiversity pressure could vary depending on region.

One of the papers which studied sensitivity of species to environmental pressures [Louette et al., 2010], developed a set of sensitivity scores for European species, determining which species will benefit from, be indifferent to, or be negatively affected by environmental change. This 'Bioscore' study used such sensitivity scores to create a tool for predicting the effect of a policy change on Europe's biodiversity. The proportion of affected species in each region was used to map the effects of a change in each biodiversity pressure. The sensitivity scores for each species were obtained from published literature about individual species' responses to change in different environmental variables. The BioScore tool suggests that even if the magnitude of a biodiversity pressure is constant across Europe, biodiversity's response can still vary according to country, due to varying sensitivity of the species within such country. This study is a predictive tool based on published studies about individual species, and a wider-breadth study is necessary to observe worldwide variances in countries sensitivities to biodiversity pressures. The BioScore tool's predictions support the concept that country-wide differences in sensitivity could exist.

A wider spectrum study examined sensitivity to environmental change at a broader level, and found variation between taxa [Sunday et al., 2015]. This between-taxa variation further supports the concept that sensitivity to biodiversity pressures could vary between countries, and the authors emphasise that their findings suggest that sensitivity to environmental change should not be assumed to be constant across taxa, as is currently common. This supports the idea that researching differences between countries' sensitivity, could contribute to more accurate predictions of how biodiversity pres-

110 sures impact biodiversity.

111

112 *****

113 Studies show impacts of socioeconomic status and cultural impacts on biodiversity [Kinzig et al., 2005].

114 This gives reason to believe that pressures impacting biodiversity loss could have varying impacts

115 based on their location. This research aims to investigate whether the location of a pressure affects

116 its' level of impact on biodiversity.

117 **Methods**

118 **Overview**

119 The focus of this study is on anthropogenic biodiversity pressures only. Anthropogenic pressures on
120 biodiversity are typically grouped, in the current literature, into 5 main pressures; climate change, land
121 use change, pollution, invasive species and overexploitation. In order to assess whether sensitivity
122 to each pressure varies by country, data was needed in the form of time series (how each of these
123 pressures had been changing in each country over time, as well as how each country's biodiversity
124 had been changing over time). The time series of biodiversity in a country was compared to the time
125 series of a pressure on biodiversity in that country, in order to extract a 'sensitivity score' for each
126 country to assess any effect of geography.

127

128 First, each pressure's geographic relationship with biodiversity was assessed in isolation. It is
129 important to look at individual biodiversity pressures, as opposed to an aggregated pressure on
130 biodiversity, because the pressures have spatial differences [Steffen et al., 2015], meaning the geo-
131 graphical magnitude of each pressure varies. Therefore in order to understand how countrys differ
132 in their responses to biodiversity pressures, it must be taken into account the magnitude of each
133 pressure that each country experiences.

134

135 **Data**

136 BD data = 18 years, 240 countries The variable chosen to represent biodiversity was biodiversity
137 intactness. The National History Museum's (NHM) Biodiversity Intactness Index (BII) was chosen
138 as it presents biodiversity in the context of how many original species remain (relative to reference
139 populations). The NHM's Index is the best for this project as the database used is that of the PRE-
140 DICTS project, which more geographically representative than other datasets [Purvis et al., 2018].
141 This allows for direct comparison of these changes, with the changes in anthropogenic pressures.
142 Historical BII data spanned 1970 - 2014.

143

144 Climate data = 120 years, 230 countries Time series data for climate change was obtained in the
145 form of annual average temperature for each country. The temperature dataset chosen was from
146 the World Bank's Climate Change Knowledge Portal. This dataset was chosen because it contains
147 comprehensive historical data, providing an annual average temperature for every year from 1900
148 until 2020.

149

150 Built Land data = 4 years, 249 countries (years is big problem!) To represent land use change,
151 the dataset used was The Global Human Settlement Layer data package [A et al., 2019]. The data
152 contains information on built-up area change over time, which is the variable chosen to represent
153 land use change. Collective land use change is difficult to quantify from land use statistics. Although
154 satellite data is available to categorise land cover type over time, calculating annual land use change
155 from the proportion of each land cover type is not necessarily accurate, as land use change can be
156 multi-directional. Current studies assessing the impact of land use change on biodiversity are often
157 meta-analyses or use a natural regional situation as the reference land type [De Baan et al., 2013]
158 as opposed to observing direct impacts of land use change. Statistics

159
160 GHG data = 31 years, 63 countries (countries is problem!) With the focus being on terrestrial
161 biodiversity, greenhouse gases (GHG) were used as the representative variable for 'pollution' as a
162 biodiversity pressure. The dataset used to access GHG emissions for each country over time was the
163 'National Inventory Submissions' section of the United Nations - Climate Change website [?]. GHG
164 emissions are presented both including and excluding 'Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry
165 (LULUCF)' related emissions data. When assessing pollution and biodiversity links in isolation, LU-
166 LUCF was included. However, when modelling all biodiversity pressures together, LULUCF was
167 tested for collinearity with the land use change variable, and consequently included/excluded.

168
169 The OECD.stat website was used to download the land use change and pollution data.
170

171 **Method 1: model for each country**

172 **Individual Pressures**

173 For each country, a linear model was fit with biodiversity as the response variable, and the biodi-
174 versity pressure (e.g. pollution) as the explanatory variable. For those countries where the gradient
175 was found to be statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), the gradient was recorded as a 'sensitivity score'.
176 This sensitivity score is representative of the sensitivity of that country's biodiversity, to the particular
177 biodiversity pressure (e.g., sensitivity of Spain's biodiversity to one unit of pollution)

178
179 Sensitivity scores were then used to visualise the differences between countries. (I could insert a
180 map with a colour scale representing the sensitivity score values from different countries)

181
182 Sensitivity scores were then compared between continents using a linear model. Important to
183 note that this method only tests for differences between each category, and the reference category,
184 and therefore does not test differences between all groups. To see the differences between all groups,
185 a Tukey test was ran.
186

187 **Multi-Pressure Model**

188 **Method 2: dummy variables**

189 **Individual Pressures**

190 For each biodiversity pressure, a linear model was created for each country using time series of
191 biodiversity data and the corresponding pressure's time series. For each country in which the pres-
192 sure was found to have a significant effect on biodiversity ($p < 0.05$), the coefficient of the gradient was
193 recorded as that country's 'sensitivity score', representing such country's 'sensitivity' to this particular
194 biodiversity pressure.

195

196 Each data set has data from a different combination of years, and countries. For each pressure
197 being investigated, only data from years and countries that are shared between that particular dataset
198 and the biodiversity dataset is included.

199

200 For each pressure, the datasets were wrangled and refined to obtain two time series (at an annual
201 level) for each country; biodiversity and the magnitude of the particular pressure.

202 The data for all countries was pooled into one dataset, and a column added for continent. Be-
203 cause assessing differences between each country would remove too many degrees of freedom,
204 differences between the sensitivities of continents were assessed. A multiple linear model was cre-
205 ated for each pressure. Continent was coded as a factor, in order for R to treat it as a dummy variable.
206 The alphabetically first continent acting as the reference variable (usually Africa), in order to avoid
207 multicollinearity. So that the slopes of each continent could be compared, interactions were also
208 added between continent and the climate

209

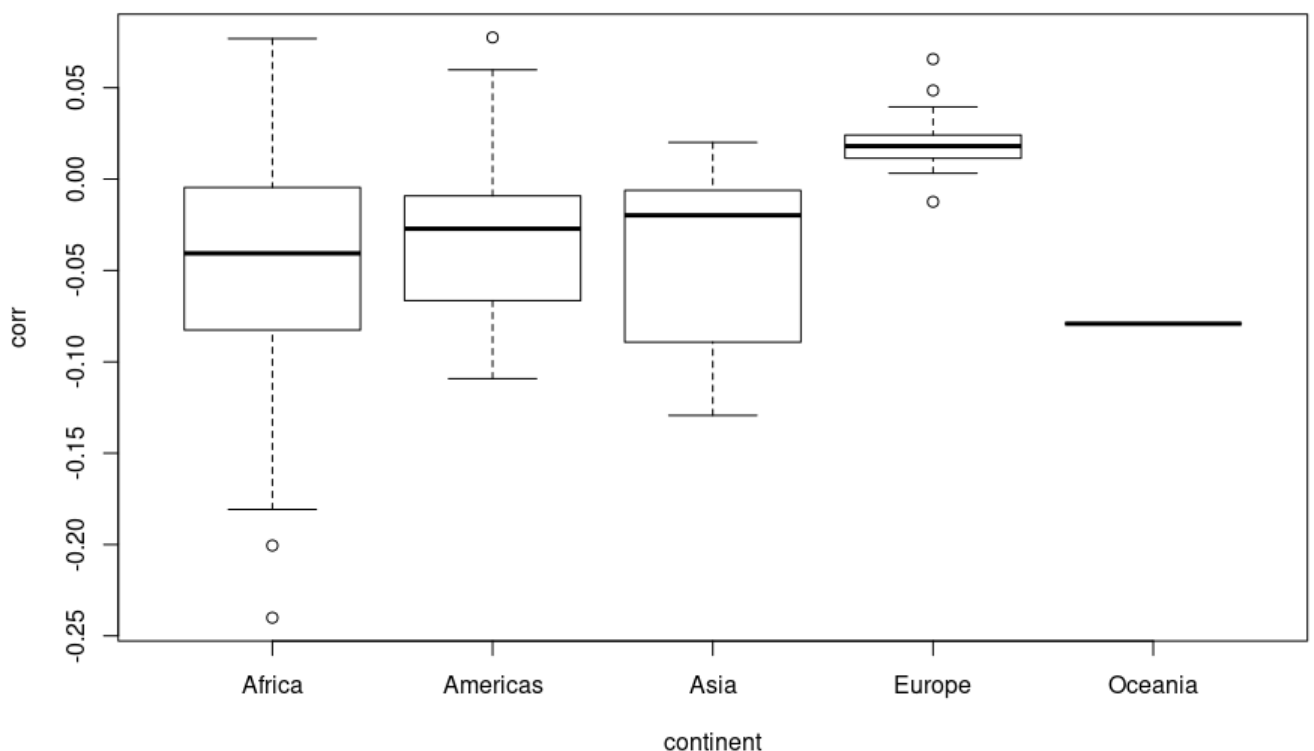
Results

Method 1: ANOVAs of gradients

Climate

158 countries and 18 years matched between these datasets and 88 gave significant gradient results

Africa was significantly different from zero, and Asia and Oceania did not differ from Africa. The Americas were statistically different, being 0.03 higher, and Europe's sensitivity scores were also significant, being 0.07 higher.



Built Land

175 countries and 3 years matched between datasets. only 1 country gave significant result.

Didn't work with built land data because there were only 3 years that matched in the dataset and only 1 country came back as having a significant relationship.

Pollution

There were only 43 countries and 16 years that matched between the datasets, and only 7 of these had significant results

Invasive

147 countries matched between datasets but the whole thing is a shitshow so let's ignore this one

Method 2: dummy variables

Africa is reference level for all models.

Invasive species

Intercept for Africa was statistically significantly different from zero (0.78), and no other continents had a significantly different intercept apart from Europe's which was 0.68.

There was no significant relationship found between number of invasive species and biodiversity in Africa. Slope was not statistically significant from zero. Slopes from all other continents were not significantly different from Africa's.

Pollution

Intercept was statistically significant for Africa, but slope was not. Europe, Oceania and South America all had statistically significantly different intercepts from Africa but the other continents did not.

Europe and Oceania's slopes were significantly different from Africa's but the other continents were not.

Built Land

Africa's intercept was significant but slope was not. Europe, North America and Oceania all had significantly different intercepts to Africa's.

No slopes were significantly different from Africa's and therefore none were different from zero.

Climate

All intercepts and slopes were significantly different from each other. But I still need to correct for average temperature.

264 **Conclusion**

265 optional section

266 **Data and Code Availability**

267 Data and CodeAvailabilitystatement: At the end of your Main text, before the References section, you
268 must provide a statement titled “Data and Code Availability”, where you name a data (e.g., Dropbox,
269 FigShare, Zenodo, etc) and a code (e.g., Dropbox, GitHub, etc.) archive 20from where the data and
270 code can be obtained that will allow replication of your results. The code may be in the form of a
271 single script file.

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