

# 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)

25/08/2022

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of  
Science at Imperial College London**

**Submitted for the MSc in Computational Methods in Ecology and Evolution**

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 **Abstract**

20 To our knowledge, very little prior research has studied geographic differences in sensitivity to biodi-  
21 versity pressures. Hence, studying geographical variation in sensitivity would be useful in comparing  
22 the impact of pressures on global biodiversity.

23	<b>Contents</b>	
24	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>4</b>
25	<b>Methods</b>	<b>7</b>
26	Overview . . . . .	7
27	Data . . . . .	7
28	Method 1: model for each country . . . . .	8
29	Individual Pressures . . . . .	8
30	Multi-pressure model . . . . .	8
31	Method 2: dummy variables . . . . .	8
32	Individual Pressures . . . . .	8
33	<b>Results</b>	<b>10</b>
34	Method 1: ANOVAs of gradients . . . . .	10
35	Method 2: dummy variables . . . . .	11
36	<b>Discussion</b>	<b>12</b>
37	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>13</b>
38	<b>Data and Code Availability</b>	<b>14</b>
39	<b>Acknowledgements</b>	<b>15</b>

## 40 Introduction

### 41 Overview

42 Ecosystems with intact biodiversity provide services such as clean air and pollination, which makes  
43 the earth habitable for humans (?). Loss of such biodiversity leads to unstable environments which  
44 are less resistant to change. Biodiversity loss diminishes ecosystem productivity (Duffy et al., 2017)  
45 and threatens all life on earth, including human well-being (Díaz et al., 2006). Biodiversity is impacted  
46 by both natural and anthropogenic pressures (Nobel et al., 2020), however any mention of 'biodiver-  
47 sity pressures' in this study refers only to the latter. Understanding the impacts of anthropogenic  
48 pressures on biodiversity is important for creating accurate environmental policies and conservation  
49 strategies, and therefore more effective ones.

50  
51 Aside from traditional efforts for protecting biodiversity, another response to the biodiversity cri-  
52 sis (Ogar et al., 2020) is the beginning of a global movement towards sustainable business and  
53 biodiversity-conscious investment (PRI, 2020)(Forum, 2020)(WWF, 2020). Creating a tool which as-  
54 sesses the overall biodiversity impact of a company can help guide investors. This is something  
55 that various parties are currently developing (Alliance, 2022)(ICCS, 2020). The World Benchmarking  
56 Alliance is using an approach centred around researching published materials from top companies.  
57 Dissimilarly, 'Benchmark for Nature' is a project which is using open-source data from news articles  
58 that have been web-scraped, in an effort to gain the maximum amount of data possible about the  
59 links that companies/sectors have with each biodiversity pressure. Benchmark for Nature aims to  
60 use data science to develop a framework for assessing investment impacts on biodiversity (ICCS,  
61 2020), similar to the ESG framework currently in place. The ESG information currently available only  
62 assesses an investments' impact on the environment, but not on living nature and biodiversity. The  
63 purpose of the project is to better inform investors so that more biodiversity-conscious decisions can  
64 be made, in an effort to aid the biodiversity loss crisis (Gasu et al., 2021), and also indirectly, the  
65 climate (Shin et al., 2022).

66  
67 Assessing the impact that investments/companies have on biodiversity involves calculating their  
68 contributions towards the main pressures (e.g. deforestation, pollution etc.). It is also useful to know  
69 where in the world these effects are taking place, so that we know how much biodiversity is at risk.  
70 The worlds' biodiversity is not equally distributed, it varies geographically (Gaston, 2000) (Ricklefs,  
71 2004) (McRae et al., 2017). Various direct and indirect pressures correlate with this variation in biodi-  
72 versity (Sunday et al., 2015), (Ament et al., 2019) (Velde, 2022). The magnitude of pressures acting  
73 on biodiversity also varies across regions/biomes (Millennium ecosystem assessment, 2005) (Sala  
74 et al., 2000), and as do their spatial couplings (Bowler et al., 2020) meaning the pressures on bio-  
75 diversity are not equally distributed geographically. An assumption in some literature and models of  
76 biodiversity response is that whilst magnitude of pressures varies, sensitivity to these pressures is  
77 constant geographically (Sala et al., 2000), however there is no research to support this assumption.  
78 Despite any patterns observed in magnitude of pressures, there will always be variation in biodiver-  
79 sity response to such pressures due to species' varying sensitivities (Bowler et al., 2020). In the  
80 context of Benchmark for Nature's tool, web articles are unlikely to mention the exact species that a  
81 company is having an impact on, and is more likely to mention the general region the impact is taking  
82 place, meaning regional insights into sensitivity would be useful. For this reason, the question that

83 has been raised is whether sensitivity to biodiversity pressures differs geographically. Insights about  
84 geographical variations in biodiversity sensitivity at regional levels (e.g. country, continent) would be  
85 the most useful for tools like Benchmark for Nature, but have not been adequately studied. A possible  
86 explanation for the inadequate research in this area is that the rise in global biodiversity impact tools  
87 (like benchmark for nature) have created a demand for higher level (e.g. country, continent) data  
88 that previously had no use because species-level data was sufficient. Having regional information on  
89 biodiversity sensitivity will allow the impact of pressures on biodiversity to be better estimated in situ-  
90 ations where it is not clear which species are being impacted, and only the area of impact is known.  
91 Rather than just including how biodiversity in general is likely to respond, it would be more useful to  
92 know how local biodiversity in that specific region is likely to respond.

93

## 94 **Interspecific and intertaxon sensitivity**

95 Although there is no available database about how biodiversity sensitivity differs geographically, it is  
96 well known that interspecies responses to biodiversity pressures vary (Foden et al., 2013). Given  
97 also that each region of the world comprises different combinations of species groups (van Goethem  
98 and van Zanden, 2021), there is reason to believe that sensitivity to biodiversity pressure could vary  
99 depending on location. One of the papers which studied interspecific sensitivity to environmental  
100 pressures (Louette et al., 2010), developed a set of sensitivity scores for European species, deter-  
101 mining which species will benefit from, be indifferent to, or be negatively affected by environmental  
102 change. This 'Bioscore' study used such sensitivity scores to create a tool for predicting the effect of  
103 a policy change on Europe's biodiversity. The proportion of affected species in each region was used  
104 to map the effects of a change in each biodiversity pressure. The sensitivity scores for each species  
105 were obtained from published literature about individual species' responses to change in different  
106 environmental variables. The BioScore tool suggests that even if the magnitude of a biodiversity  
107 pressure is constant across Europe, biodiversity's response can still vary according to country, due  
108 to varying sensitivity of the species within such country. This study is a predictive tool based on pub-  
109 lished studies about individual species, and a wider-breadth study is necessary to observe worldwide  
110 variances in countries sensitivities to biodiversity pressures. The BioScore tool's predictions support  
111 the concept that country-wide differences in sensitivity could exist.

112

113 Sensitivity to environmental change also varies between taxa and should not be assumed to be  
114 constant (Sunday et al., 2015). This between-taxa variation further supports the concept that sen-  
115 sitivity to biodiversity pressures could vary on larger scales. Given that there have been differences  
116 in sensitivity to pressures found at both the species, and taxa level, then grouping species into even  
117 broader categories (such as country) could continue to show such differences. This supports the  
118 idea that researching differences between regional sensitivity, could contribute to more accurate pre-  
119 dictions of how biodiversity pressures impact biodiversity. Another reason that studying sensitivity at  
120 a broader scale than species is useful, links to intra-specific variation. It is common practice among  
121 both meta-analyses and projects, such as the IUCN redlist ,to extrapolate findings about a popula-  
122 tion's sensitivity to the species on the whole (IUCN, 2001) (Buckley et al., 2012). High intraspecific  
123 variation exists in response to biodiversity pressures like climate change (McLean et al., 2018) (Both  
124 et al., 2004) (Mayor, 2016). This could mean that extrapolating findings about one population of a  
125 species to the species on the whole could be problematic.

## 127 **Geographical differences in sensitivity**

128 An understanding of the sensitivity of biodiversity of an entire region could be a more accurate metric  
 129 for studies of a global scale. Sensitivity to habitat loss can vary according to location (study site)  
 130 (Mayor, 2016), further supporting the concept that sensitivity could differ geographically.

131  
 132 Biodiversity sensitivity differs between biomes for the following biodiversity pressures; pollution  
 133 (nitrogen exceedance) (Alkemade et al., 2009), land use change and climate change (Newbold et al.,  
 134 2020). The most sensitive biomes were tropical biomes (Barlow et al., 2016) with the least sensitive  
 135 being temperate and boreal biomes (Newbold et al., 2020) (Cazalis et al., 2021) (Barlow et al., 2016).  
 136 Despite geographical variations in sensitivity existing between biomes, little is known about continen-  
 137 tal differences. Biomes are unequally distributed between the continents, with South America having  
 138 a higher percentage cover of tropical forest than any other continent, and Europe having the lowest  
 139 closely followed by North America (Wade et al., 2003). Because of the aforementioned sensitivity  
 140 differences between biomes, it could be that Europe and North America will have lower sensitivity to  
 141 biodiversity pressures than other continents, with South America being the most sensitive. However,  
 142 of the minimal research that has studied continental differences, findings contradict this hypothesis as  
 143 they showed tropical forest biodiversity sensitivity to be higher in Asia than in other regions (Americas  
 144 and Africa). (Gibson et al., 2011).

## 145 **Research aims**

146 Given that anthropogenic impact on the environment is worldwide (Plumptre et al., 2021), the ques-  
 147 tion should be raised of whether the geographic location of biodiversity pressures affects their impact  
 148 on global biodiversity. The understanding of variations in biodiversity sensitivity, along with many  
 149 other aspects of biodiversity, has knowledge gaps which desperately need filling (Pereira et al., 2012).  
 150 If such geographic differences exist, they should be taken into account when attributing biodiversity-  
 151 related merit to investments. To widen the scope of impact outside of the Benchmark for Nature  
 152 project, taking into account geographic variations in sensitivity to biodiversity pressures could make  
 153 estimates about biodiversity impact more accurate. Better understanding of biodiversity pressures will  
 154 aid a better understanding of the implications of investments (and other policies) on natural ecosys-  
 155 tems. This research aims to investigate whether the location of a pressure affects its' level of impact  
 156 on biodiversity which is important more so now than ever (Ceballos et al., 2015). Add to this para-  
 157 graph a brief description of how I will conduct my study. State hypotheses.

158  
 159 In order to find out which level of sensitivity insight would be useful (e.g. country, continent), I  
 160 will assess the articles already collected by the Benchmark project to determine the most commonly  
 161 mentioned (and therefore most useful) location terminology.

## Methods

### Overview

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

First, each pressure's geographic relationship with biodiversity was assessed in isolation. It is important to look at individual biodiversity pressures, as opposed to an aggregated pressure on biodiversity, because the pressures have spatial differences (Steffen et al., 2015), meaning the geographical magnitude of each pressure varies. Therefore in order to understand how countries differ in their responses to biodiversity pressures, it must be taken into account the magnitude of each pressure that each country experiences.

### Data

BD data = 18 years, 240 countries The variable chosen to represent biodiversity was biodiversity intactness. The National History Museum's (NHM) Biodiversity Intactness Index (BII)(Heather Phillips, 2021) was chosen as it presents biodiversity in the context of how many original species remain (relative to reference populations). The NHM's Index is the best for this project as the database used is that of the PREDICTS project, which more geographically representative than other datasets (Purvis et al., 2018). This allows for direct comparison of these changes, with the changes in anthropogenic pressures. Historical BII data spanned 1970 - 2014.

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

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



203 as opposed to observing direct impacts of land use change. Statistics

204

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

213

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

215

216 Overexploitation was excluded for multiple reasons. Firstly, overexploitation is the vaguest of the  
217 main pressures, and is usually used in the context of fishing (marine biodiversity being beyond the  
218 scope of this project). One of the most relevant aspects of overexploitation to is deforestation, which  
219 is (maybe remove this part depending on methods) already represented in the variable used for land  
220 use change. Though there are other aspects of overexploitation that would be relevant (e.g. illegal  
221 wildlife trading), there are no databases/studies available representing overexploitation by country.

## 222 **Method 1: model for each country**

### 223 **Individual Pressures**

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

229

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

232

233 Sensitivity scores were then compared between continents using a linear model. Important to  
234 note that this method only tests for differences between each category, and the reference category,  
235 and therefore does not test differences between all groups. To see the differences between all groups,  
236 a Tukey test was ran.

237

## 238 **Multi-Pressure Model**

### 239 **Method 2: dummy variables**

#### 240 **Individual Pressures**

241 For each biodiversity pressure, a linear model was created for each country using time series of  
242 biodiversity data and the corresponding pressure's time series. For each country in which the pres-

243 sure was found to have a significant effect on biodiversity ( $p < 0.05$ ), the coefficient of the gradient was  
244 recorded as that country's 'sensitivity score', representing such country's 'sensitivity' to this particular  
245 biodiversity pressure.

246

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

250

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

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

260

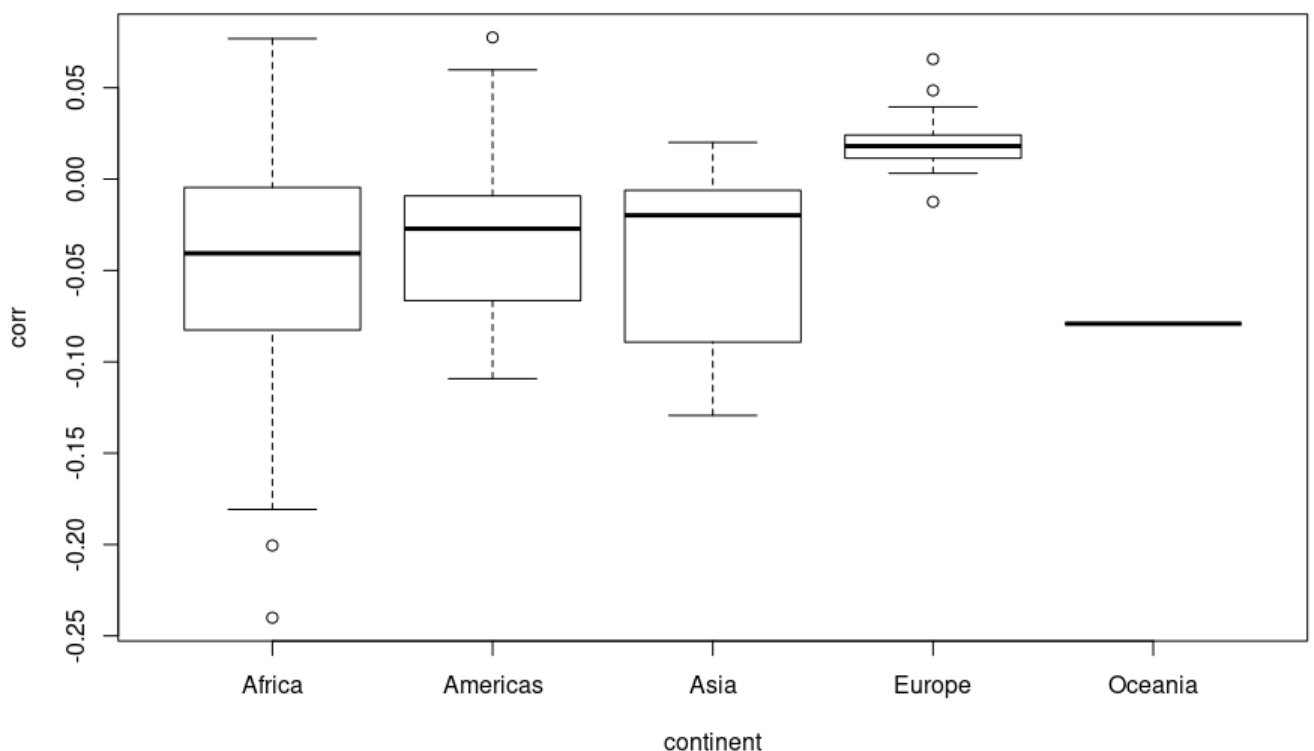
## Results

### 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.



315 **Conclusion**

316 optional section

## 317 **Data and Code Availability**

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

## Acknowledgements

## References

- A, F., C, C., D, E., SM, C. F., T, K., L, M., M, M., M, P., P, P., M, S., F, S., and L, Z. (2019). Ghsl data package 2019. (KJ-1A-29788-EN-N (online),KJ-1A-29788-EN-C (print)).
- Alkemade, R., Van Oorschot, M., Miles, L., Nellemann, C., Bakkenes, M., and Ten Brink, B. (2009). Globio3: a framework to investigate options for reducing global terrestrial biodiversity loss. *Ecosystems*, 12(3):374–390.
- Alliance, W. B. (2022). Nature and biodiversity benchmark - world benchmarking alliance.
- Ament, J. M., Collen, B., Carbone, C., Mace, G. M., and Freeman, R. (2019). Compatibility between agendas for improving human development and wildlife conservation outside protected areas: Insights from 20 years of data. *People and Nature*, 1(3):305–316.
- Barlow, J., Lennox, G. D., Ferreira, J., Berenguer, E., Lees, A. C., Nally, R. M., Thomson, J. R., Ferraz, S. F. d. B., Louzada, J., Oliveira, V. H. F., et al. (2016). Anthropogenic disturbance in tropical forests can double biodiversity loss from deforestation. *Nature*, 535(7610):144–147.
- Both, C., Artemyev, A. V., Blaauw, B., Cowie, R. J., Dekhuijzen, A. J., Eeva, T., Enemar, A., Gustafsson, L., Ivankina, E. V., Järvinen, A., et al. (2004). Large-scale geographical variation confirms that climate change causes birds to lay earlier. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences*, 271(1549):1657–1662.
- Bowler, D. E., Bjorkman, A. D., Dornelas, M., Myers-Smith, I. H., Navarro, L. M., Niamir, A., Supp, S. R., Waldock, C., Winter, M., Vellend, M., et al. (2020). Mapping human pressures on biodiversity across the planet uncovers anthropogenic threat complexes. *People and Nature*, 2(2):380–394.
- Buckley, L. B., Kingsolver, J. G., et al. (2012). Functional and phylogenetic approaches to forecasting species' responses to climate change. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution and Systematics*, 43(205):2012.
- Cazalis, V., Barnes, M. D., Johnston, A., Watson, J. E., Şekercioğlu, C. H., and Rodrigues, A. S. (2021). Mismatch between bird species sensitivity and the protection of intact habitats across the americas. *Ecology Letters*, 24(11):2394–2405.
- Ceballos, G., Ehrlich, P. R., Barnosky, A. D., García, A., Pringle, R. M., and Palmer, T. M. (2015). Accelerated modern human-induced species losses: Entering the sixth mass extinction. *Science advances*, 1(5):e1400253.
- De Baan, L., Alkemade, R., and Koellner, T. (2013). Land use impacts on biodiversity in lca: a global approach. *The International Journal of Life Cycle Assessment*, 18(6):1216–1230.
- Díaz, S., Fargione, J., Chapin III, F. S., and Tilman, D. (2006). Biodiversity loss threatens human well-being. *PLoS biology*, 4(8):e277.
- Duffy, J. E., Godwin, C. M., and Cardinale, B. J. (2017). Biodiversity effects in the wild are common and as strong as key drivers of productivity. *Nature*, 549(7671):261–264.



359 Foden, W. B., Butchart, S. H., Stuart, S. N., Vié, J.-C., Akçakaya, H. R., Angulo, A., DeVantier,  
 360 L. M., Gutsche, A., Turak, E., Cao, L., et al. (2013). Identifying the world's most climate change  
 361 vulnerable species: a systematic trait-based assessment of all birds, amphibians and corals. *PloS*  
 362 *one*, 8(6):e65427.

363 Forum, W. E. (2020). New nature economy series nature risk rising ... - world economic forum.

364 Gaston, K. J. (2000). Global patterns in biodiversity. *Nature*, 405(6783):220–227.

365 Gasu, M., Gasu, G., Ntemuse, U., et al. (2021). A review of biodiversity loss and climate change:  
 366 Policy measures and adaptation strategies in nigeria. *Malaysian Journal of Tropical Geography*  
 367 *(MJTG)*, 47(1 and 2):100–122.

368 Gibson, L., Lee, T. M., Koh, L. P., Brook, B. W., Gardner, T. A., Barlow, J., Peres, C. A., Bradshaw,  
 369 C. J., Laurance, W. F., Lovejoy, T. E., et al. (2011). Primary forests are irreplaceable for sustaining  
 370 tropical biodiversity. *Nature*, 478(7369):378–381.

371 Heather Phillips, Adriana De Palma, R. E. G. S. C. e. a. (2021). The biodiversity intactness index  
 372 - country, region and global-level summaries for the year 1970 to 2050 under various scenarios.  
 373 Technical report, National History Museum.

374 ICCS (2020). Benchmark for nature.

375 IUCN, S. S. C. (2001). Iucn red list categories and criteria: version 3.1. *Prepared by the IUCN*  
 376 *Species Survival Commission*.

377 Kinzig, A. P., Warren, P., Martin, C., Hope, D., and Katti, M. (2005). The effects of human socioeco-  
 378 nomic status and cultural characteristics on urban patterns of biodiversity. *Ecology and Society*,  
 379 10(1).

380 Louette, G., Maes, D., Alkemade, J. R. M., Boitani, L., de Knecht, B., Eggers, J., Falcucci, A., Fram-  
 381 stad, E., Hagemeyer, W., Hennekens, S. M., et al. (2010). Bioscore–cost-effective assessment  
 382 of policy impact on biodiversity using species sensitivity scores. *Journal for Nature Conservation*,  
 383 18(2):142–148.

384 Mayor, S. (2016). Assessing bird interspecific and intraspecific variation in sensitivity to habitat frag-  
 385 mentation. Master's thesis, Imperial College London. unpublished thesis.

386 McLean, N., Van Der Jeugd, H. P., and van de Pol, M. (2018). High intra-specific variation in  
 387 avian body condition responses to climate limits generalisation across species. *PLoS One*,  
 388 13(2):e0192401.

389 McRae, L., Deinet, S., and Freeman, R. (2017). The diversity-weighted living planet index: controlling  
 390 for taxonomic bias in a global biodiversity indicator. *PloS one*, 12(1):e0169156.

391 Millennium ecosystem assessment, M. (2005). *Ecosystems and human well-being*, volume 5. Island  
 392 press Washington, DC.

393 Newbold, T., Hudson, L. N., Hill, S. L., Contu, S., Gray, C. L., Scharlemann, J. P., Börger, L., Phillips,  
 394 H. R., Sheil, D., Lysenko, I., et al. (2016). Global patterns of terrestrial assemblage turnover within  
 395 and among land uses. *Ecography*, 39(12):1151–1163.

396 Newbold, T., Oppenheimer, P., Etard, A., and Williams, J. J. (2020). Tropical and mediterranean biodi-  
397 versity is disproportionately sensitive to land-use and climate change. *Nature Ecology & Evolution*,  
398 4(12):1630–1638.

399 Nobel, A., Lizin, S., Brouwer, R., Stern, D., B Bruns, S., Malina, R., et al. (2020). Are anthropogenic  
400 pressures on biodiversity valued differently than natural ones? a meta-analysis of the non-use  
401 valuation literature. In *2020 Conference (64th), February 12-14, 2020, Perth, Western Australia*,  
402 number 305246. Australian Agricultural and Resource Economics Society.

403 Ogar, E., Pecl, G., and Mustonen, T. (2020). Science must embrace traditional and indigenous  
404 knowledge to solve our biodiversity crisis. *One Earth*, 3(2):162–165.

405 Pereira, H. M., Navarro, L. M., and Martins, I. S. (2012). Global biodiversity change: the bad, the  
406 good, and the unknown. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*, 37:25–50.

407 Phillips, H. R. P. (2016). *Effects of land use and habitat fragmentation on local biodiversity*. PhD  
408 thesis, Imperial College London.

409 Plumptre, A. J., Baisero, D., Belote, R. T., Vázquez-Domínguez, E., Faurby, S., Jdrzejewski, W., Kiara,  
410 H., Köhl, H., Benítez-López, A., Luna-Aranguré, C., et al. (2021). Where might we find ecologically  
411 intact communities? *Frontiers in Forests and Global Change*, 4:26.

412 PRI (2020). Investor action on biodiversity.

413 Purvis, A., Newbold, T., De Palma, A., Contu, S., Hill, S. L., Sanchez-Ortiz, K., Phillips, H. R., Hudson,  
414 L. N., Lysenko, I., Börger, L., et al. (2018). Modelling and projecting the response of local terrestrial  
415 biodiversity worldwide to land use and related pressures: the predicts project. In *Advances in*  
416 *ecological research*, volume 58, pages 201–241. Elsevier.

417 Ricklefs, R. E. (2004). A comprehensive framework for global patterns in biodiversity. *Ecology letters*,  
418 7(1):1–15.

419 Sala, O. E., Stuart Chapin, F., Armesto, J. J., Berlow, E., Bloomfield, J., Dirzo, R., Huber-Sanwald,  
420 E., Huenneke, L. F., Jackson, R. B., Kinzig, A., et al. (2000). Global biodiversity scenarios for the  
421 year 2100. *science*, 287(5459):1770–1774.

422 Shin, Y.-J., Midgley, G. F., Archer, E. R., Arneeth, A., Barnes, D. K., Chan, L., Hashimoto, S., Hoegh-  
423 Guldberg, O., Insarov, G., Leadley, P., et al. (2022). Actions to halt biodiversity loss generally  
424 benefit the climate. *Global change biology*.

425 Steffen, W., Richardson, K., Rockström, J., Cornell, S. E., Fetzer, I., Bennett, E. M., Biggs, R.,  
426 Carpenter, S. R., De Vries, W., De Wit, C. A., et al. (2015). Planetary boundaries: Guiding human  
427 development on a changing planet. *science*, 347(6223):1259855.

428 Sunday, J. M., Pecl, G. T., Frusher, S., Hobday, A. J., Hill, N., Holbrook, N. J., Edgar, G. J., Stuart-  
429 Smith, R., Barrett, N., Wernberg, T., et al. (2015). Species traits and climate velocity explain  
430 geographic range shifts in an ocean-warming hotspot. *Ecology letters*, 18(9):944–953.

431 van Goethem, T. and van Zanden, J. L. (2021). Biodiversity trends in a historical perspective.

- 432 Velde, M. (2022). How wildlife trends correlate with economic wealth and human population density.  
433 Master's thesis, Imperial College London. unpublished thesis.
- 434 Wade, T. G., Riitters, K. H., Wickham, J. D., and Jones, K. B. (2003). Distribution and causes of  
435 global forest fragmentation. *Conservation Ecology*, 7(2).
- 436 WWF (2020). Nature is too big to fail.