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Proactive Conservation to Prevent Habitat Losses to Agricultural Expansion

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The projected loss of millions of square kilometres of natural ecosystems to meet future demand for food, animal feed, fibre, and bioenergy crops is likely to massively escalate threats to biodiversity. Reducing these threats requires a detailed knowledge of how and where they are likely to be most severe. We developed a geographically explicit model of future agricultural land clearance based on observed historic changes and combine the outputs with species-specific habitat preferences for 19,859 species of terrestrial vertebrates. We project that 87.7% of these species will lose habitat to agricultural expansion by 2050, with 1,280 species projected to lose $\geq 25\%$ of their habitat. Proactive policies targeting how, where, and what food is produced could reduce these threats, with a combination of approaches potentially preventing almost all these losses while contributing to healthier human diets. As international biodiversity targets are set to be

31 **updated in 2021, these results highlight the importance of proactive efforts to safeguard**
32 **biodiversity by reducing demand for agricultural land.**

33

34 Biodiversity declines are accelerating across the world^{1–3}, with one fifth of terrestrial
35 vertebrates threatened with extinction (categorised by the International Union for the
36 Conservation of Nature, IUCN, as Vulnerable, Endangered, or Critically Endangered⁴).
37 Habitat loss, driven by agricultural expansion, is the greatest threat to terrestrial vertebrates^{5,6}.
38 If current agricultural trends continue, pressures on biodiversity will increase substantially:
39 projections based on population growth⁷ and dietary transitions estimate the need for 2-
40 10 million square kilometres of new agricultural land, largely cleared at the expense of
41 natural habitats^{8–11}. In the face of these trends, conventional conservation approaches, such as
42 site based conservation, may be insufficient to conserve biodiversity^{12,13}. Policies to reduce
43 the underlying threats to biodiversity—such as agricultural expansion—through proactive
44 approaches will likely be needed to complement existing efforts^{5,14}.

45 Responding to the impending biodiversity crisis requires decisions informed by high
46 resolution, spatially explicit and species-specific assessments on many thousands of species
47 to identify the species and landscapes most at risk. Results from these assessments can be
48 used to help plan appropriate conservation responses—such as species- or location-specific
49 legislation—and to assess which proactive changes to food systems have the greatest
50 potential to reduce future threats to biodiversity before they occur. The utility of most
51 existing analyses for conservation planning and action has been limited by coarse spatial
52 resolutions; a focus on a relatively small suite of species or on generalized biodiversity
53 metrics such as species richness; or using narrative pathways that are neither tied to current
54 agricultural trajectories nor able to examine how specific changes to food systems might
55 mitigate future biodiversity declines^{5,12,15,16} (see Methods and Supplementary Information).

56 We address these limitations by developing an analytical framework that increases both the
57 breadth and specificity of analyses, as well as their applicability to conservation efforts
58 (Supplementary Figure 1). Specifically, we analyse at a high spatial resolution (1.5 x 1.5 km)
59 the impacts of likely agricultural expansion on an unprecedented number of species (almost
60 20,000), while explicitly accounting for differences in how individual species may be
61 impacted by agricultural land-use change, and by analyzing how proactive food-system
62 transitions might mitigate future biodiversity declines. In total, this approach enables us to
63 identify the species and landscapes most at risk from agricultural expansion under current
64 trajectories, as well as how alternative proactive agricultural policies might reduce these
65 threats.

66 **Projecting agricultural expansion under Business-As-Usual**

67 We developed a flexible and high-resolution approach to modelling agricultural land-cover
68 change. Our approach is built on observed empirical relationships between historical changes
69 in agricultural land cover and known correlates of agricultural land-cover change (see
70 Methods, Supplementary Figure 2). This differs from the approaches employed by global
71 food system models such as IMAGE, MAgPIE, or GLOBIOM, which are based more on
72 economic theory and expert opinion than on empirically observed patterns and changes. Our
73 high resolution projections explore agricultural scenarios that are derived from observed
74 relationships and trends, and can thus incorporate factors which are not accounted for in
75 economic theory (for example strong or weak enforcement of protected areas, or the non-
76 economic factors that determine agricultural expansion), and also be readily updated as new
77 land-cover data become available. To achieve this, we developed a flexible, spatially explicit,
78 land allocation model at a resolution of 1.5 x 1.5 km based on observed changes in
79 agricultural land cover from 2001-2013 and spatially-explicit data on likely determinants of
80 land-cover change including the suitability of an area for agricultural production¹⁷, current

81 agricultural land cover¹⁸, previous patterns of agricultural land cover change¹⁸, proximity to
82 other agricultural land¹⁸, market access¹⁹, and the location of protected areas²⁰. Specifically,
83 we used satellite-derived historic land cover data¹⁸ from 2002 to 2007 to fit region-specific
84 multinomial models to estimate the probability that agricultural land cover in individual cells
85 increased, decreased, or remained the same from 2007 to 2012. Next, we used the same
86 satellite data to fit region-specific generalized linear models to estimate the magnitude of any
87 such change from 2007 to 2012.

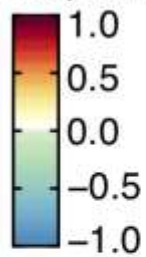
88 We then paired this two-part land allocation model with country-level estimates from 2010 to
89 2050 of agricultural land demand at five year intervals derived from the EAT-Lancet global
90 food system model¹¹, that accounts for domestic food demand and international patterns of
91 trade. For each country and time step, we used the land allocation model to first
92 probabilistically select cells to experience a change in agricultural land-cover extent, and then
93 second to estimate the magnitude of this change. This process was repeated until a country's
94 estimated agricultural land demand was met, and replicated 25 times to account for the
95 probabilistic nature of the model. Spatial patterns of agricultural expansion were consistent
96 across model runs (Supplementary Figures 3, 4) and we therefore report results using the
97 mean of the 25 model iterations.

98 Under Business-As-Usual (i.e. based on current trajectories), we projected a total increase in
99 in global cropland of 26% or 3.35 million km² from 2010 to 2050. We projected particularly
100 large increases in agricultural land throughout Sub-Saharan Africa (particularly tropical West
101 Africa, the Rift Valley, and in the southern Sahel), South and Southeast Asia (particularly
102 Bangladesh, Pakistan and southern Malaysia), and to a lesser extent Central and South
103 America (large increases in northern Argentina, and much of Central America, smaller
104 increases across southern Brazil) (Fig. 1, Supplementary Figure 5). These increases were
105 driven by the EAT-Lancet model projecting income-dependent transitions towards diets that

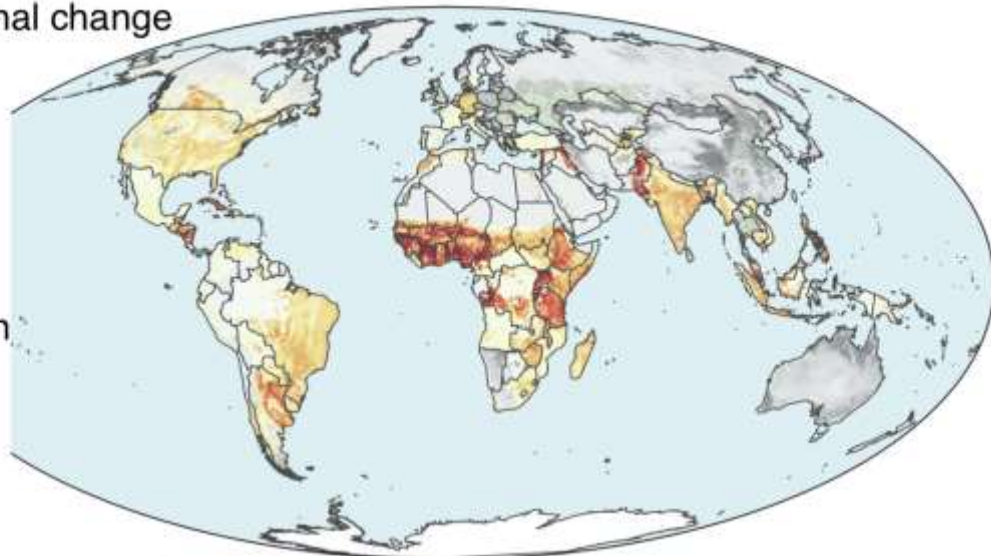
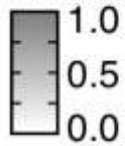
106 contain more calories and larger quantities of animal-based foods (Supplementary Figure 6),
107 combining with high levels of projected population growth (Supplementary Figure 7) and low
108 crop yields that are projected to increase slowly, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa
109 (Supplementary Figure 8). In North America, we model projected increases in agricultural
110 land in south-central Canada and throughout the U.S. but centered in the south-east, due
111 largely to the EAT-Lancet model projecting increased demand for international exports.
112 However, a combination of lower projected population increases than in Sub-Saharan Africa,
113 South and Southeast Asia and Latin America, and higher crop yields led to smaller projected
114 increases in agricultural land compared to these regions (Fig. 1, Supplementary Figure 5). In
115 contrast, we projected reductions in agricultural land demand across eastern Europe and
116 central and northern Asia (especially in Southern Russia and Eastern Belarus) due to small
117 dietary changes projected by the EAT-Lancet model, combined with low or negative rates of
118 population growth and high or increasing crop yields (Fig. 1, Supplementary Figures 5-8).

a Projected change in total agricultural land 2010-2050

Proportional change

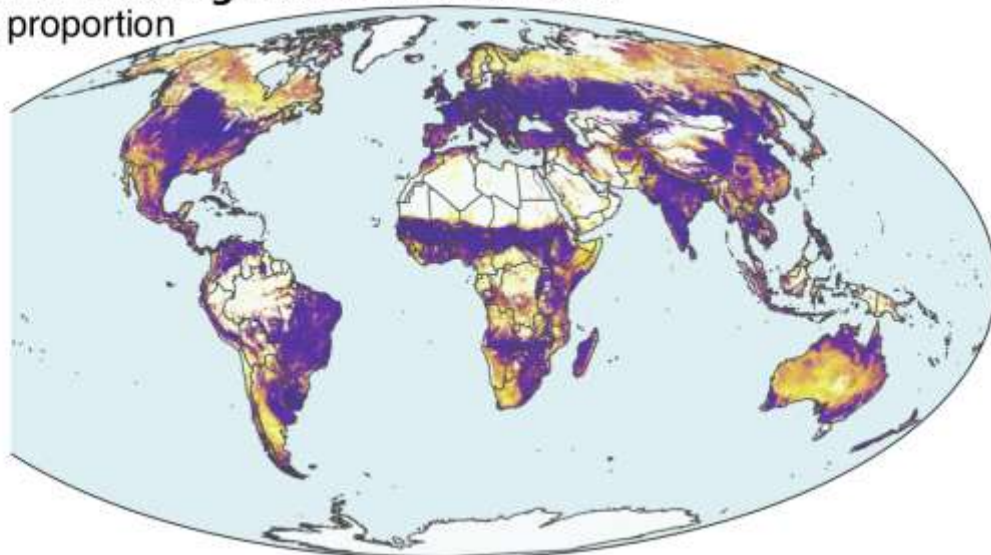
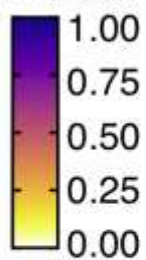


Proportion
in 2010



b Projected total agricultural land 2050

Projected proportion
in 2050



119

120 **Figure 1. Projected extent of agricultural land in 2050 under Business-As-Usual**

121 **a** Projected change in the proportion of agricultural land (cropland plus pastureland, in
122 colour) in each 1.5 x 1.5 km cell from 2010-2050, overlaid on proportions of agricultural
123 land in 2010 for cells not projected to experience a change in extent (in greyscale). Note the
124 offset scale to highlight areas with small decreases in the proportion of agricultural land.

125 **b** Projected proportion of agricultural land in each cell in 2050. Map produced using Natural
126 Earth data v2.0 (www.naturalearthdata.com).

127

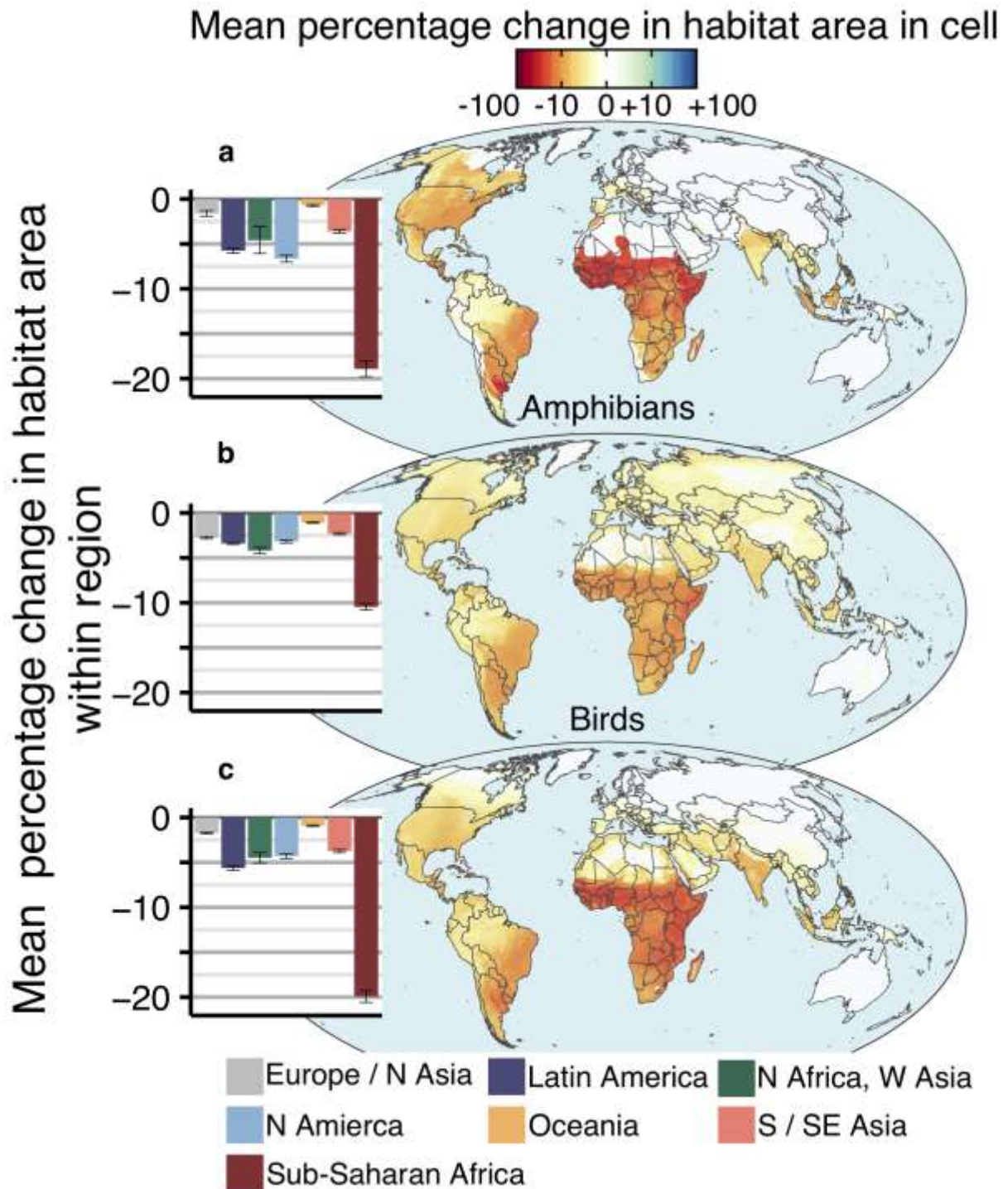
128 **Habitat losses under Business-As-Usual**

129 We next estimated changes in habitat area²¹ from 2010 levels for each of 4,003 amphibian,
130 10,895 bird, and 4,961 mammal species. To do so, we overlaid our projections of future
131 agricultural cover with maps of 2010 habitat for each species^{22–24}, using species-specific
132 assessments of whether each species can survive and reproduce in agricultural land⁴ to
133 calculate changes in total area of habitat for each species (see Methods). We acknowledge
134 that, because a species' population density will vary across its available habitat due to
135 differences in climate, land cover, land-use intensity or abundances of other species^{16,25},
136 habitat loss may not linearly equate to population change.

137 Under Business-As-Usual trajectories, we projected that 87.7% of species (17,409 species)
138 would lose some habitat by 2050, 6.3% to have no change in habitat area, and 6.0% to have
139 an increase in habitat area due to their survival in agricultural land, with 72.9% of these (877
140 species) being birds. If natural habitats are allowed to regrow in abandoned agricultural land,
141 these numbers, once habitats have re-established, are projected to be 76.1%, 6.1%, and
142 17.8%, respectively, with considerable benefits for some species (Supplementary Data 1).
143 Given the long time required for complete recovery after agricultural abandonment²⁶ we
144 report results assuming that habitats do not recover in the timeframe considered, although our
145 overall conclusions do not differ if we alter this assumption (Supplementary Data 1).

146 We projected a mean loss of $5.8 \pm 0.1\%$ of 2010 habitat across all 19,859 species in the
147 analysis (range: 100% loss to 78.2% increase); across species losing habitat, this value was
148 $6.7 \pm 0.9\%$, but with considerable variation between regions and species (Fig. 2). Projected
149 mean habitat losses were greatest in Sub-Saharan Africa ($14.4 \pm 0.3\%$ across all species)
150 with particularly large losses for amphibians in Equatorial West Africa (where five
151 ecoregions had projected mean losses of over 25%, and 10 ecoregions with mean losses over
152 20%, Supplementary Table 1) and for mammals in East Africa (eight ecoregions had

153 projected mean losses over 18%, Supplementary Table 1). Large mean habitat losses were
 154 also projected in the Atlantic Forest in Brazil, in Eastern Argentina, across Central America
 155 and the Caribbean, and in parts of South and Southeast Asia (Fig. 2, Supplementary Table 1).



156

157 *Figure 2. Projected changes in habitat area in 2010-2050 under Business-As-Usual*

158 *conditions for a amphibians b birds c mammals. Maps show the mean change in habitat area*

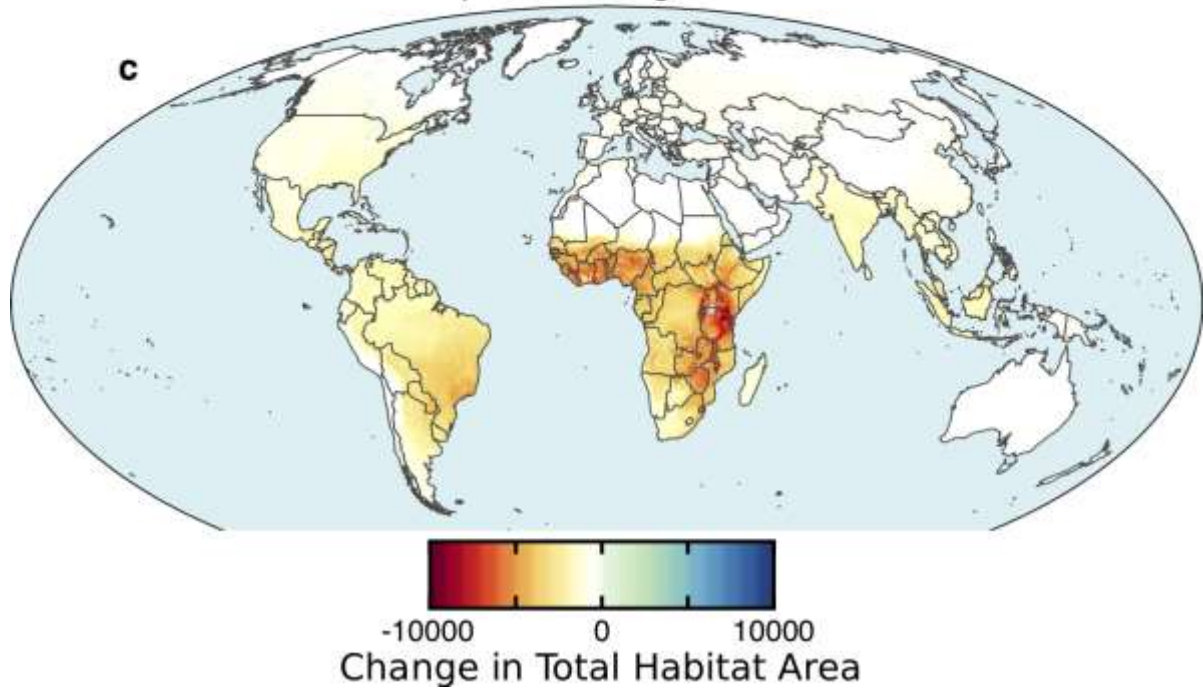
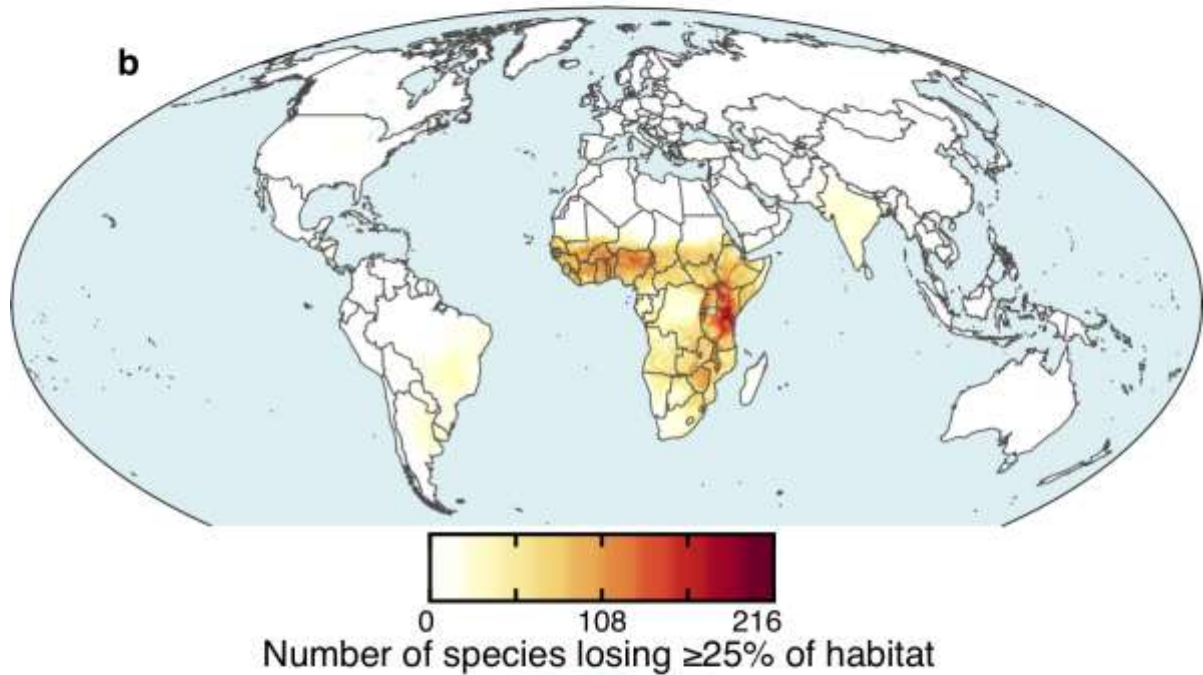
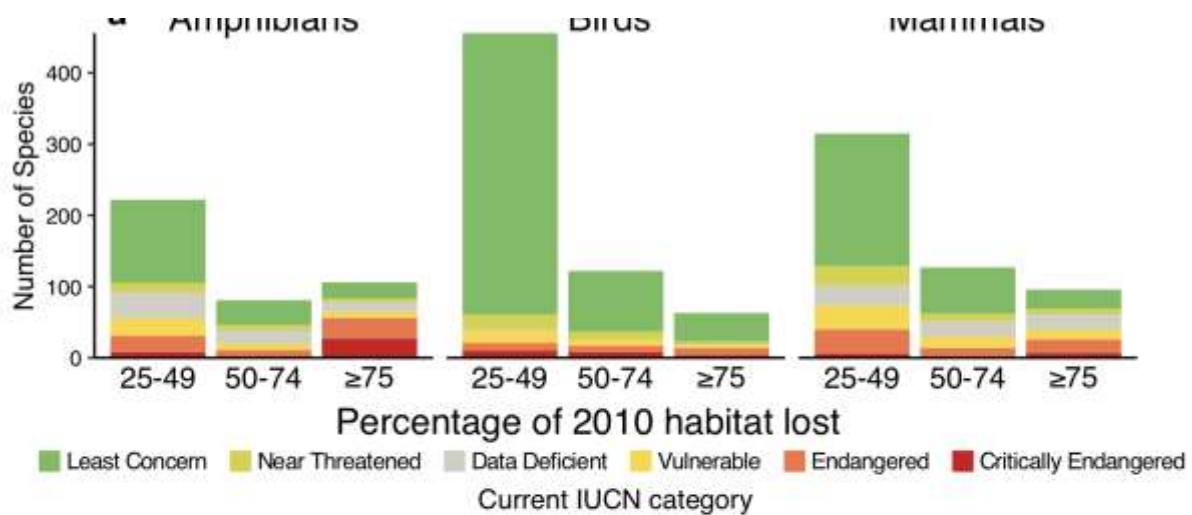
159 *for all species within a cell, with values on a log₁₀ scale. Insets show the mean change in*
160 *habitat area for all species within a region. See Supplementary Data 2 for which countries*
161 *are included in each region. Map produced using Natural Earth data v2.0*
162 *(www.natureearthdata.com).*

163

164 Mean values conceal the severity of projected habitat losses for many species. By 2050,
165 1,280 species were projected to lose at least 25% of their remaining habitat area (Fig. 3a) and
166 will likely be at increased risk of global extinction. Of these species, 980 are not currently
167 classified as globally threatened according to the IUCN and so may not be a primary focus of
168 current conservation efforts. More alarmingly, 347 species were projected to lose at least
169 50% of their remaining habitat; 96 at least 75%; and 33 at least 90%. A high proportion of
170 these heavily impacted species are currently listed as globally threatened with extinction
171 (34%, 52%, and 55%, respectively), strongly suggesting that agricultural expansion could
172 lead to the regional or global extinction of many species in the coming decades. This
173 highlights the need for analyses that project how and where future threats to biodiversity are
174 likely to emerge, allowing conservationists and policy makers to act proactively to mitigate
175 against threats.

176 Overall biodiversity impact will be greatest where high rates of habitat loss coincide with
177 large numbers of species (Supplementary Figure 9). Loss of total habitat area—the mean
178 habitat loss within a cell multiplied by the number of species present—as well as the number
179 of species losing at least 25% of their habitat were projected to be highest in Sub-Saharan
180 Africa, particularly the Rift Valley and throughout tropical Western Africa (Fig. 3b, c). In
181 Sub-Saharan Africa 22.5% of species (941 species: 179 amphibians, 406 birds, and 356
182 mammals) were projected to lose at least 25% of their remaining habitat, with 44 out of 52
183 Sub-Saharan African countries containing at least 25 such species (Supplementary Data 7).

184 Projected habitat losses were also high in Latin America, particularly southeast Brazil and the
185 remaining Atlantic Forest, with 246 species, including 99 amphibians, projected to lose at
186 least 25% of their habitat (Fig. 3b). Our results highlight the disproportionate share of local,
187 regional, or even global extinctions that Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America are projected
188 to account for, containing 93% of the species projected to lose $\geq 25\%$ of their remaining
189 habitat. These continent-wide patterns of habitat loss could radically transform ecosystems
190 that hold a large proportion of the world's biodiversity, particularly of large mammals in Sub-
191 Saharan Africa and birds and amphibians in Latin America⁵.



193 **Fig. 3. Severity of projected habitat losses from 2010-2050** *a* Number of species projected to
194 lose $\geq 25\%$ of their 2010 habitat by 2050, split by current IUCN status *b* Global distribution
195 of species projected to lose $\geq 25\%$ of their 2010 habitat by 2050 *c* Projected changes in total
196 habitat (mean habitat loss in a cell multiplied by the number of species present) by 2050. See
197 Supplementary Figure 10 for projected total habitat loss for individual taxa. Map produced
198 using Natural Earth data v2.0 (www.naturalearthdata.com).

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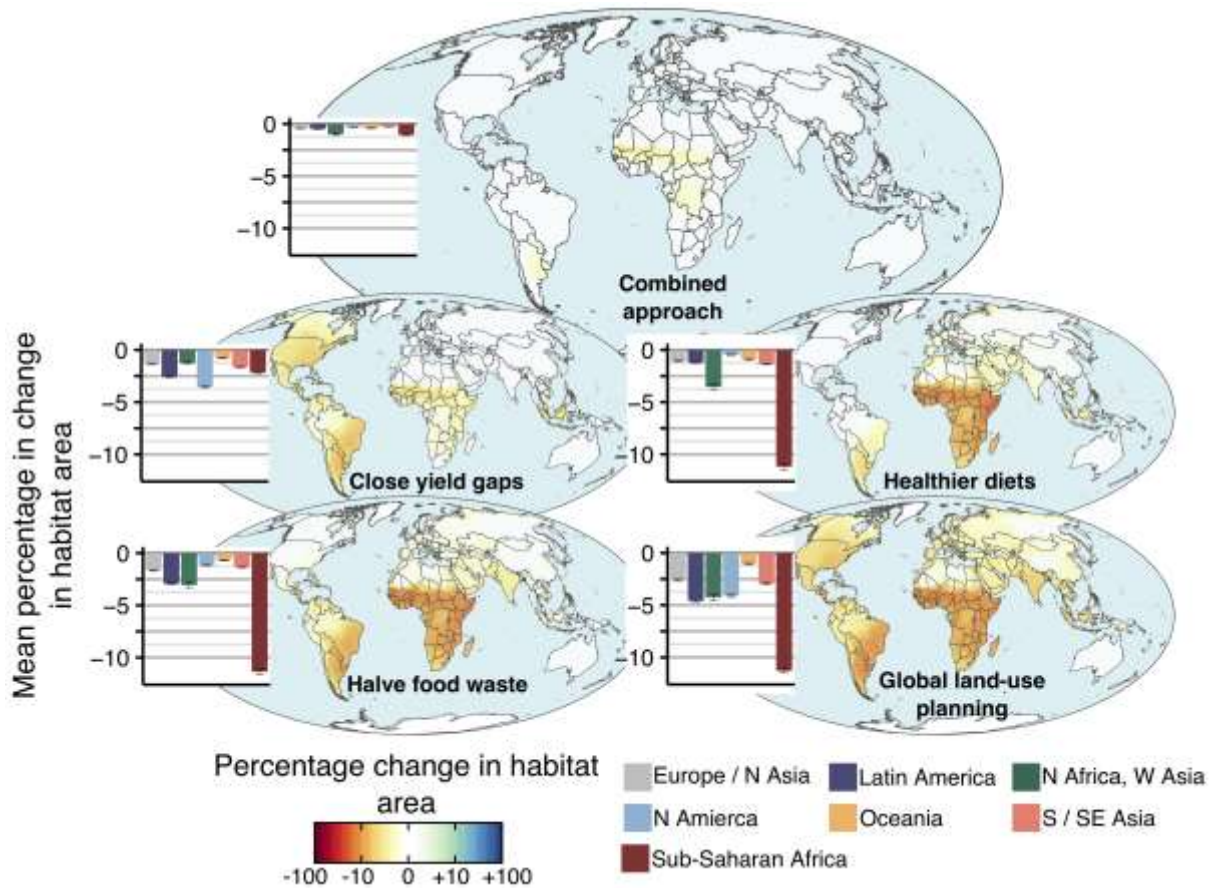
200 We projected small decreases in agricultural land in parts of Europe, Central and Northern
201 Asia, China, Australia, and New Zealand (Fig 1a). If these lands are allowed to revert to a
202 natural state—a process which may take many decades²⁷—then there is the possibility for
203 small increases in habitat area in these regions. However, these potential increases for some
204 species were far outweighed by projected losses in habitat area for others. Allowing for
205 habitat recovery or restoration after agricultural abandonment has a minor impact to the
206 overall projections of widespread habitat loss across all species examined (Supplementary
207 Data 1).

208 **Proactive food-system changes to reduce biodiversity threats**

209 The projected severity of agricultural land-cover change on habitat area means that proactive
210 policies to reduce future demand for agricultural land will likely be required to mitigate
211 widespread biodiversity declines. To investigate the potential of such proactive approaches,
212 we developed a scenario that implemented four changes to food systems: closing crop yield
213 gaps globally; a global transition to healthier diets; halving food loss and waste; and global
214 agricultural land-use planning to avoid competition between food production and habitat
215 protection. In addition, to identify the relative impacts of specific changes to the food system,
216 we investigated the impacts of each approach individually. We used previously published
217 scenarios for yield increases, diets and food waste^{5,11}, and used projected habitat losses in the

218 Business-As-Usual scenario to identify the countries that could most benefit from global
219 agricultural land-use planning. In each case, we assumed each approach was steadily adopted,
220 such that the complete transition was only achieved in 2050 (see Methods and Supplementary
221 Information for details). Under the “combined approach” scenario, employing all four
222 approaches, we projected that global cropland would, by 2050, actually decline by nearly 3.4
223 million square kilometres relative to 2010, and by 6.7 million square kilometres relative to
224 Business-As-Usual (Supplementary Table 2, Supplementary Figure 11).

225 We also projected that under the combined approach all regions would see mean habitat
226 losses of 1% or less by 2050 (Fig. 4). That is, with global coordination and rapid action, it
227 should be possible to provide healthy diets for the global population in 2050 without major
228 habitat losses. The greatest benefits compared to Business-As-Usual were in Sub-Saharan
229 Africa, where we projected a mean loss of global habitat of $1.0 \pm 0.04\%$ under the combined
230 approach compared with a mean loss of $14.4 \pm 0.3\%$ under Business-As-Usual (Fig. 4,
231 Supplementary Figures 12-14). If natural habitats are allowed to regrow in abandoned
232 agricultural land, then we projected mean habitat would increase in every region
233 (Supplementary Figures 15-16; Supplementary Data 1).



234

235 **Figure 4. Projected changes in mean habitat area from 2010-2050 under alternative**
 236 **scenarios.** Maps show the mean change for all species of all taxa in a cell, with values on a
 237 *log*10 scale. Insets show the mean change in habitat area for all species within a region. The
 238 lower four panels show the results from scenarios using single approaches, the top panel
 239 (“Combined approach”) show the combination of all four approaches. See Supplementary
 240 Data 2 for which countries are included in each region. Patterns for total habitat change are
 241 similar (Supplementary Figure 13). Map produced using Natural Earth data v2.0
 242 (www.naturalearthdata.com).

243

244 Perhaps more importantly, habitat losses were far less severe for the species most heavily
 245 impacted under Business-As-Usual. Globally, only 33 species were projected to lose more
 246 than 25% of their habitat, compared to 1,280 under Business-As-Usual. Thus, our analyses

247 demonstrate that addressing the underlying drivers of agricultural expansion has the potential
248 to greatly benefit the most at-risk species, and thereby reduce extinction risks. However, the
249 majority of species (81.6%) were still projected to lose small amounts of habitat, suggesting
250 that conventional conservation measures will continue to be vital to protect biodiversity.

251 The impacts of individual approaches varied regionally. Closing yield gaps was projected to
252 have the largest overall benefits (Fig. 4) and was particularly effective in North Africa, West
253 Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa, where large yield gaps remain^{28,29}. When the only change
254 from Business-As-Usual practices was closing yield gaps, 33 species in these regions were
255 projected to lose more than 25% of their habitat, compared to 953 under Business-As-Usual.
256 Projected benefits were considerably lower in other regions, where yield gaps are smaller, but
257 still reduced the number of such species from 361 to 103. The magnitude of these projected
258 benefits supports, and is supported by, recent analyses investigating the land-saving potential
259 of closing yield gaps across the world^{30,31}. However, increasing yields often has negative
260 consequences for species within agricultural lands^{16,32,33}. As such, while all scenarios could
261 see declines in the suitability of croplands by 2050, this effect may be exacerbated by closing
262 yield gaps. For most species, these losses are likely to be outweighed by the land-saving
263 benefits of yield increases³² but the benefits of closing yield gaps may be reduced for some
264 species that rely heavily on agricultural lands.

265 Transitioning to healthier diets and reducing food waste were projected to have considerable
266 benefits—while not completely eliminating habitat losses—particularly in wealthier regions
267 with high per capita consumption of both calories and animal-based foods, and in regions
268 such as South America with high consumption of animal-based foods (Fig. 4). In contrast,
269 projected benefits from international land-use planning were far smaller, with 1,026 species
270 being still projected to lose at least 25% of their 2010 habitat. The biggest benefits of land-
271 use planning were in Sub-Saharan Africa, where all the countries with reduced agricultural

272 land demand under this scenario were located. Even here, however, there were still 646
273 species projected to lose $\geq 25\%$ of 2010 habitat, compared to 942 under Business-As-Usual,
274 673 under healthy diets, and 695 under halved food waste.

275 Analyzing the potential benefits of individual changes to the food system reveals that
276 combining different approaches could have synergistic benefits. For example, a country
277 projected to see a 20% fall in food demand under the halved food waste scenario and a 50%
278 increase in yields under the close yield gaps scenario would see 20% and 33% reductions in
279 land demand under each scenario respectively, compared to Business-As-Usual. However,
280 combining these two approaches reduces the area required to just 53% of Business-As-Usual
281 demand. This results in the avoided habitat loss under the combined approach being greater
282 than the sum of the avoided loss under the four constituent scenarios (Fig. 4).

283 **Maintaining biodiversity in a world with 10 billion people**

284 Our projections suggest that, under Business-As-Usual, agricultural expansion will drive
285 widespread and severe biodiversity declines, but that these could be avoided with concerted,
286 proactive efforts to address food consumption and production as ultimate drivers of
287 biodiversity loss. Our approach and results are immediately relevant to international efforts
288 for the development of new strategic goals and targets for 2030 and 2050 under the auspices
289 of the Convention on Biological Diversity in 2021. We identify the policy approaches with
290 the greatest potential to combat the underlying drivers of future biodiversity declines in
291 different countries and highlight, at spatial scales relevant to conservation action, the species
292 and landscapes most at risk. These results can support proactive planning of both on-the-
293 ground conservation schemes and changes to the wider food system to mitigate threats.

294 Our approach offers an empirically derived complement to integrated assessment models
295 such as GLOBIOM³⁶, MAgPIE³⁷ and IMAGE³⁸. Despite the difference in approaches,
296 our projections are in broad agreement with those based on Shared Socioeconomic Pathways

297 (SSPs), with the exception of projected agricultural expansion in North America, which is not
298 seen under all the Pathways³⁹. This difference results from increased crop demand projected
299 by the EAT-Lancet projections¹¹ and are in agreement with analyses based on other non-SSP
300 projections⁴⁰. Our projections are at a higher resolution than most existing efforts, while the
301 modular and adaptable nature of the land allocation model means it can be easily updated as
302 new data become available, and can be paired with any estimate of future agricultural land
303 demand at local to global scales (Supplementary Figure 1). There are likely to be non-
304 linearities in future agricultural expansion, for example, the construction of a new road or the
305 degazetting of a protected area could lead to rapid agricultural expansion in a region that
306 neither our approach nor integrated assessment models highlight as vulnerable. Our approach,
307 however, allows for the rapid inclusion of these changes into projections by adjusting the
308 value of explanatory variables (in these cases travel time and the presence of a protected area)
309 and recalculating the probability of future agricultural expansion. Thus, we hope that our
310 approach can help provide a dynamic and responsive tool for decision makers to investigate
311 the potential impacts of different policies.

312 In reality, threats to biodiversity could be considerably greater than those we project: other
313 projections of future agricultural land demand are higher than those we use⁵, and we do not
314 include the impacts of anthropogenic climate change, habitat fragmentation, over-
315 exploitation, invasive species or pollution^{5,6,41-43}. Climate change is likely to drive
316 widespread changes in biodiversity by altering the location of suitable habitats and
317 environments, and may have synergistic effects with habitat loss and fragmentation from
318 agricultural expansion⁴³. In addition, its effect on agricultural yields⁴⁴ and the relative
319 suitability of different regions for various crops⁴⁵ could have indirect impacts on biodiversity
320 by altering patterns of agricultural expansion. Uncertainty in how climatic changes will affect
321 agriculture⁴⁶ and species⁴⁷ precludes quantitatively assessing these impacts, but we note that

322 the scenarios we discuss could also help reduce the impacts of climate change and other
323 threats. Reducing demand for new cropland can reduce greenhouse gas emissions from land-
324 use change, reduce habitat fragmentation, and lessen the opportunity costs of protected areas
325 for local people⁴⁸, while land-use planning could help preserve unfragmented habitats or
326 allow habitat restoration.

327 Here, we demonstrate the potential conservation benefits of multiple approaches, but our
328 findings are still a long way from specific policy recommendations. Actions will require
329 locally appropriate policies, taking into account individual countries' socio-economic and
330 governance environments, the cultural acceptance of different strategies, and on-the-ground
331 capacity to implement strategies. Past successes can provide insights into how to ensure that
332 strategies are both effective and maintain fair and equitable access to food, for example,
333 through increasing crop yields⁴⁹⁻⁵¹, shifting to healthier diets⁵²⁻⁵⁴, reducing food and crop
334 waste^{55,56}, and implementing landscape-scale land-use planning⁵⁷. Learning from previous
335 efforts to increase sustainability can also be used to avoid unintended consequences, such as
336 when increases in agricultural yields promote local agricultural expansion⁵⁸.

337 Although fully achieving the approaches we investigated may not be feasible in all regions,
338 even the partial implementation of proactive approaches could be environmentally beneficial.
339 As we approach the updating of the Convention on Biological Diversity's targets for global
340 biodiversity conservation in 2021, and the halfway point of the SDGs in 2022, our results
341 strongly suggest there are co-benefits to biodiversity of appropriate agriculture-related
342 development: reducing agricultural land-cover change can reduce anthropogenic climate
343 change and alleviate poverty by increasing farmer incomes; shifting to healthier diets and
344 reducing food waste can reduce hunger and support better health and sustainable
345 consumption. These proactive efforts to change how we produce and consume food will be a

346 major challenge, but one which cannot be avoided if we are to safeguard species for future
347 generations.

348 **Methods**

349 To project impacts of future agricultural land-cover change on biodiversity, we linked a land
350 demand model, a land allocation model, and a biodiversity model in a flexible framework
351 (Supplementary Figure 1). This approach can be readily modified, for example to different
352 future scenarios or different spatial scales, or to incorporate new data as it becomes available.
353 Collectively, this approach enables us to project changes in land cover and their impact on
354 habitat availability for individual species at a resolution of 1.5 x 1.5 km for every five years
355 from 2010 to 2050. Our analysis includes nearly 20,000 species of birds, mammals, and
356 amphibians, and 152 nations that occupy >99% of Earth's ice-free land and contain >99% of
357 current agricultural land (see Supplementary Data 2). Full details of model specification,
358 datasets used, and sensitivity analyses are in Supplementary Information.

359 **Land Demand Model**

360

361 *Projecting agricultural land demand under Business-As-Usual*

362 We combined income-and-trade-dependent projections of country-specific agricultural
363 production under Business-As-Usual conditions (i.e. continuing historic trajectories) from
364 EAT-Lancet Commission¹¹, with the United Nation's medium-fertility population
365 projection^{59,60} and previously published yield projections⁵. We did not use the population
366 projections used in EAT-Lancet because they are derived from Shared Socioeconomic
367 Pathway (SSP) scenarios⁶¹ and so are not updated to account for recent population trends. As
368 such, SSP 2—the pathway most similar to current Business-As-Usual trajectories—projects
369 approximately 570 million fewer people worldwide than current UN medium variant

370 population projections⁷. Additionally, we did not use the yield scenarios from the EAT-
371 Lancet projections because they assume increases in future crop yields at faster-than-historic
372 trajectories¹¹, something for which there is no empirical support⁶². We instead used published
373 crop yield forecasts that project crop yield increases along historic linear trajectories, but
374 cannot surpass current country-specific maximum potential yields^{5,28,29}.

375 We projected cropland demand for each country in each five-year time period from 2010 to
376 2050. To do so, we divided projections of demand for national food production (derived from
377 combining EAT-Lancet projections with UN population projections) by crop yield
378 projections. EAT-Lancet estimates of current cropland are based on FAO data¹⁷, while the
379 Land Allocation Model is based on MODIS satellite data¹⁸. We therefore harmonised EAT-
380 Lancet projections with satellite data by: (1) calculating proportional change in cropland in
381 each five-year time period from 2010-2050; (2) estimating the total cropland in each country
382 in 2010 based on MODIS data; (3) multiplying this satellite-derived estimate by the projected
383 change in proportional demand; and (4) capping country-specific land-demand projections at
384 FAO estimates of potential arable land in each country⁶³. This ensures continuity between
385 datasets but could lead to under-projecting agricultural expansion in countries where cropland
386 is under-detected by satellite data (e.g. very small areas are farmed, or farming is largely
387 under dense tree cover).

388 We assumed the area of pastureland remained constant for each country, following recent
389 patterns⁶³, reallocating pastureland within a country if cropland expanded into existing
390 pastureland. See Supplementary Information for more details.

391 *Agricultural land demand under alternative scenarios*

392 To investigate the impact of proactive policies that could reduce future cropland demand we
393 repeated the Business-As-Usual analysis with five alternative scenarios (see Supplementary
394 Table 3 for assumptions of different scenarios):

395 (1) **Close yield gaps:** Yields increase linearly from current yields to 80% of the estimated
396 maximum potential^{28,29} by 2050. Increasing yields above 80% is rarely achieved over
397 large areas⁶⁴.

398 (2) **Healthier diets:** Diets transition from current diets to healthier composition and
399 caloric quantity¹¹.

400 (3) **Halved food waste:** Food loss and waste throughout entire food supply chains is
401 reduced from current rates⁶⁵ by 25% by 2030 and 50% by 2050.

402 (4) **International land-use planning:** Agricultural production shifts from the 25
403 countries projected to have the greatest mean losses of suitable habitat across all
404 species to countries where less than 10% of species are threatened with extinction and
405 less than 10% of species would qualify as being threatened with extinction under
406 IUCN Criteria B2⁶⁶ under Business-As-Usual in 2050. The shift in agricultural
407 production is gradual, such that an additional 10% of total food demand is imported
408 by 2030 and by 20% in 2050.

409 The goal of this scenario is to estimate the impact on biodiversity of land use planning
410 across international borders, avoiding expansion in the most at-risk countries. We
411 recognize this scenario could be antagonistic to food security and sovereignty,
412 especially in countries where agriculture is a large source of employment and/or
413 income.

414 (5) **Combined approach:** All four approaches were adopted simultaneously.

415 We assumed each approach was steadily adopted, such that the complete transition was only
416 achieved in 2050. We estimated that, by 2050, each approach individually—with the
417 exception of international land-use planning—could reduce global demand for cropland by at
418 least 2 million square kilometres, while simultaneous adoption of all four scenarios would
419 reduce global land demand by ~6.7 million square kilometres (Supplementary Table 2,
420 Supplementary Figure 11). International land-use planning had smaller impacts, reducing
421 global demand by 230,000 square kilometres. See Supplementary Information for more
422 explanation on the alternative land demand scenarios.

423 **Land Allocation Model**

424 We developed a novel and highly resolute (1.5 x 1.5km) spatial allocation model using
425 observed relationships between explanatory variables and changes in land cover to project
426 future spatial patterns of agricultural land-cover change. We fitted relationships between
427 empirically observed changes in cropland or pastureland and a set of key explanatory
428 variables and assumed that these fitted relationships remain constant into the future. Thus, we
429 are not simply extrapolating past changes in agricultural land into the future, but rather basing
430 projections on an understanding of the factors that shape how spatial patterns of agricultural
431 land-cover evolve.

432 By separating projections of agricultural land demand from its spatial allocation, our
433 approach enables the investigation of how specific interventions might influence future land-
434 use change and biodiversity loss. Our projections are at a far higher resolution than existing
435 projections of agricultural land-use change, e.g. GLOBIOM (5-30 arc minutes; approximately
436 100-2,500 km² at the equator)³⁶, CLUMondo, and MAgPie (30 arc minutes; approximately
437 2,500 km² at the equator)^{37,40}. This allows stakeholders to identify areas likely to experience
438 large biodiversity declines at the spatial scales at which conservation actions and policies are
439 implemented.

440 *Modelling past changes in agricultural land*

441 To understand past drivers of change in agricultural land we applied a two-stage modelling
442 process applied to each 1.5 x 1.5 km terrestrial cell on earth. First, we fitted a multinomial
443 regression to estimate the probability a cell experienced a change in the proportion of
444 agricultural land during a five-year period. Secondly, we fitted generalized linear models
445 (GLMs) to estimate the magnitude of this change. We fitted separate models for cropland and
446 pastureland because of differences in the relative importance of factors influencing their
447 dynamics.

448 ***Data Inputs***

449 Land-cover change is driven by interacting biophysical and socio-economic forces⁶⁷. We
450 reviewed land-cover change literature to identify potential drivers of agricultural expansion
451 and included those for which global data was available at appropriate spatial resolutions. We
452 therefore included in our models: extent of surrounding agricultural land; historic changes in
453 agricultural land; agro-ecological suitability (AES); travel time to large cities (>50,000
454 people) as a proxy for market access; and the presence of a protected area in a cell⁶⁷⁻⁷³. See
455 Supplementary Information for more detail and data sources.

456 We resampled all data to 1.5 x 1.5 km Mollweide projection using the `resample()` function in
457 the raster package⁷⁵ in R⁷⁶. Note that AES was originally at a coarser resolution¹⁷
458 (Supplementary Table 4), adding a degree of uncertainty to our projections (see
459 Supplementary Information for details). All other input data was originally at a higher
460 resolution.

461 ***Model fitting***

462 We fitted region-specific multinomial regressions to estimate the probability that each cell
463 experienced a change in cropland or pastureland extent and then used GLMs to estimate the

464 magnitude of this change. Because drivers of cropland and pastureland expansion differ by
465 region (Supplementary Data 3-6), we fitted separate models for each IUCN region⁷⁷ and for
466 cropland and pastureland.

467 We *a priori* included the same explanatory variables for all models (although see
468 Supplementary Table 4 for differences between cropland and pastureland models) and used
469 cell-specific values for each explanatory variable.

470 Examining univariate relationships between explanatory and response variables showed non-
471 linear relationships for some variables. We therefore log-transformed travel time and
472 included quadratic effects for all variables except AES and presence/absence of a protected
473 area. We also included country as a fixed effect in the model because differences in country-
474 specific laws, policies, and demand for agricultural land affect the spatial pattern of cropland
475 expansion. See Supplementary Information for more information on model fitting.

476 *Probability of Change in Agricultural Extent*

477 Our first response variable was whether the proportion of cropland or pastureland in a cell
478 increased, decreased, or remained constant from 2007 to 2012. To account for uncertainty in
479 MODIS data, we classified cells as having a constant agricultural extent if the proportion of a
480 cell under agricultural land cover changed by less than 0.025 from 2007 to 2012. We then
481 used the R package {nnet}⁷⁸ to fit a multinomial regression model to estimate the probability
482 a cell increased, decreased, or did not change in cropland or pastureland extent from 2007 to
483 2012.

484 *Magnitude of Change in Agricultural Extent*

485 Our second response variable was the magnitude of agricultural land cover change in a cell.
486 We fitted separate GLMs to cells that experienced increases in agricultural land and those
487 that experienced decreases. This resulted in three GLMs for each IUCN region: cropland

488 increases, cropland decreases, and pastureland increases. We did not fit models for
489 pastureland decreases because we assume pastureland extent remains constant in each
490 country. We fitted models using the `glm()` function in the `{stats}` package in R⁷⁶, with a
491 gamma error distribution and a log-link function to bound estimates between 0 and 1.

492 ***Modelling results and accuracy***

493 Model coefficients and accuracies are shown in Supplementary Table 5 and Supplementary
494 Data 3-6. See Supplementary Information for more details on modeling testing, results and
495 accuracy.

496 *Model Accuracy: Probability of Change in Agricultural Extent*

497 We assessed model accuracy by classifying cells as having expanded or contracted from
498 2007-2012 based on the cell's most probabilistic modelled outcome. We then compared these
499 classifications with actual changes over 2007-2012.

500 Model accuracy varied across regions, ranging from ~62.5% (Caribbean) to ~95% (North
501 Africa) for cropland and 59% (Oceania) to 77% (South and Southeast Asia) (Supplementary
502 Table 5) for pastureland. This compares with a 33% chance of randomly selecting the correct
503 outcome. The lower accuracy of pastureland predictions is possibly due to MODIS data not
504 differentiating between natural grasslands or savannas and artificial pastures¹⁸.

505 **Projecting agricultural land cover change**

506 We estimated the probability and magnitude of future agricultural land cover change for
507 every cell using the coefficients from the fitted models. We extracted land cover data from
508 MODIS for 2005 (estimated as the mean of 2004-2006) and 2010 (mean of 2009-2011),
509 using 2010 as a baseline for our projections and calculating the change from 2005 to 2010 as
510 an explanatory variable. We used the region-specific multinomial models to estimate the
511 probability that each cell would experience an increase or decrease in cropland, then

512 estimated the magnitude of these increases or decreases using the GLMs. See Supplementary
513 Information for more detail.

514 *Cropland expansion*

515 To project future agricultural land cover, we then linked these estimated probabilities and
516 magnitudes of land-cover change from the Land Allocation Model with the agricultural land
517 demand estimated from the Land Demand Model (Supplementary Figure 1).

518 For countries with a projected increase in cropland demand, we randomly selected a single
519 cell, based on the probability it would experience an increase in cropland extent (i.e. the
520 output from the region-specific multinomial model), then increased the proportion of
521 cropland in the chosen cell by the cell-specific amount estimated from the expansion GLMs.
522 We updated the estimates from both parts of the model (because the area of cropland is a key
523 predictor), reduced the country's five-year agricultural land demand target by the amount of
524 expansion estimated for the cell, and repeated the process until the country's five-year target
525 for cropland was met.

526 For countries projected to see a decrease in cropland, we used the same procedure, but using
527 the probability of cells experiencing a decrease in cropland from the multinomial model, and
528 the estimated magnitude of this decrease from the contraction GLMs.

529 *Changes in pastureland*

530 Following recent trends in global pastureland^{63,79} and the EAT-Lancet projections, we did not
531 project changes in countries' areas of pastureland. However, we did allow cropland to expand
532 into pastureland. This displaced pastureland was then reallocated within the country using the
533 allocation process described above for crops, but using the region-specific models for
534 pastureland, and additionally assuming pastureland cannot expand into cropland. To avoid
535 overestimating future pastureland extent, we limit pastureland expansion to cells identified as

536 having livestock by Gridded Livestock of the World⁸⁰ in 2010. If pastureland extent could not
537 expand adequately to meet the five-year target, we assumed that shortfalls were compensated
538 by livestock intensification^{5,81}.

539 *Adjusting probabilities and the magnitude of changes*

540 Agriculture cannot expand into all regions and land cover classes, specifically into regions
541 with very low growing degree days, and urban, rock and ice, barren ground, and water land-
542 cover classes. We therefore assumed that agriculture could not expand into certain cells based
543 on their land cover type and climatic conditions, and further capped the potential amount of
544 agricultural land based on the proportion of each cell that is suitable for agriculture. See
545 “Input data for models” and “Adjusting probabilities and the magnitude of changes” in
546 Supplementary Methods for details.

547 *Consistency of projections*

548 Because the land allocation model is probabilistic, we repeated it 25 times, calculating the
549 mean and standard deviation of the extent of cropland and pasture in each cell for each five-
550 year time period. The allocation model produced consistent projections (Supplementary
551 Figure 3) and we therefore use the mean value in our analyses. The median global coefficient
552 of variation (standard deviation / mean) in 2050 was 0.26 for cropland and <0.001 for
553 pastureland (Supplementary Figure 4), indicating variation in agricultural extent was small
554 relative to estimated mean agricultural extent.

555 *Potential impacts of climate change on agricultural land*

556 We did not include the potential impact of climate change on AES or agricultural yields in
557 our models. Doing so would be hampered by a lack of consensus of how climate change
558 might affect AES and crop yields, and would rely on a large number of untestable
559 assumptions over farmer and policy responses to environmental change. However, the

560 flexibility and adaptability of our approach allows for the easy inclusion of climate change
561 impacts in the future. This can be done by adjusting future yield projections based on local
562 conditions and adaptive capabilities, or by adjusting future AES to capture how changing
563 climates might affect the relative suitability of different regions. See Supplementary
564 Information for a longer discussion of how climate change might affect future patterns of
565 agricultural land cover change.

566 **Biodiversity Model**

567

568 *Area of habitat in 2010*

569 Maps of suitable habitat (referred to as Area of Habitat, AOH²¹) were produced for 4,003
570 amphibians, 10,895 birds, and 4,961 mammal species²¹⁻²⁴. These maps were originally
571 developed at 300 x 300m resolution through deductive habitat suitability models integrating
572 species ranges with data on suitable land-cover and elevations²¹. These habitat models
573 reliably predict species distribution over wide geographical and taxonomic extents at the
574 1 km resolution^{23,24}. Supplementary Figure 9 shows the species richness patterns created from
575 the AOH maps.

576 *Species' habitat tolerances*

577 We used IUCN data to define whether species are able to survive in agricultural land⁴. For
578 each species, we recorded if habitats were “suitable” or “marginal” and took the maximum
579 value of all habitats that qualify as either cropland or pastureland. i.e. if a species has “Arable
580 Land” as “marginal” and “Plantations” as “suitable”, we defined cropland as “suitable” for
581 the species. See Supplementary Information for a longer description on species habitat
582 tolerances.

583 ***Current Area of Habitat***

584 We next estimated the global area of suitable habitat for each species in 2010. We first
585 calculated the overlap between each species' suitable habitat and current cropland and
586 pastureland (from MODIS data) and subtracted the area of agricultural land from the habitat
587 maps, adjusting for suitability of cropland or pastureland: we assigned "suitable", "marginal",
588 and "unsuitable" habitats a value of 0, .5, and 1, respectively, and multiplied this value by the
589 overlap between habitat and agriculture in each cell. Thus, the value in each cell indicates the
590 proportion of the cell suitable for a species. We then summed this value to estimate of area of
591 suitable habitat in 2010. See Supplementary Information for more detail on how current area
592 of habitat was calculated.

593 **Biodiversity Projections**

594 We estimated future changes in the 2010 area of suitable habitat for 19,859 species of
595 terrestrial amphibians, birds, and mammals, repeating the process described above for each
596 five-year time period from 2010 to 2050. We assumed species were unable to recolonise
597 areas where agricultural land was abandoned to provide conservative estimates of
598 biodiversity gains from agricultural abandonment. Altering this assumption such that species
599 are able to colonise abandoned agricultural areas (as is often observed in long-term
600 dynamics⁸²) has little overall impact on our results: with recolonisation allowed, 17.8% of
601 species were projected to see their area of habitat area increase, compared to 6.1% without
602 recolonisation, and the mean change in habitat area for these species increased from 1.2% to
603 2.2% (Supplementary Data 1). Across all species, mean changes were even smaller, from a
604 mean loss of 5.8% to a mean loss of 5.3% with recolonisation. Species for which agricultural
605 land is suitable could see increases in area of habitat as cropland and pastureland expand, or
606 as pastureland is converted into cropland.

607 ***Projecting changes under alternative scenarios***

608 We repeated the process above for each of the five alternative scenarios and calculated both
609 the absolute changes in habitat area, as well as the difference between Business-As-Usual and
610 the alternatives.

611 **Data and materials availability:**

612 Data are available at <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.jq2bvq87m> and from the
613 corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

614 **Code availability:**

615 Code used is available at <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.jq2bvq87m>.

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