

1 **Title:** Global Threats to Biodiversity

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36 **Abstract:** Reducing rates of biodiversity loss and achieving environmental goals requires an
37 understanding of what is threatening biodiversity, where and how fast the threats are changing in
38 type and intensity, and appropriate actions needed to avert them. One might expect that the
39 Information Age – typified by a deluge of data resulting from massive and widespread
40 collection, digitization and dissemination of information – would have revolutionized our
41 understanding of global threats to biodiversity. We examine the extent to which this is true,
42 identify major data gaps for understanding threats to biodiversity, and suggest mechanisms for
43 closing them. These recommendations include innovative partnerships with data providers of all
44 kinds, ensuring relevant data sources are openly available and accessible, and a considerable
45 investment of funding into scalable data gathering initiatives.

46 **Text:** The diversity of life on earth – which provides vital services to humanity (1) – stems from
47 the difference between rates of evolutionary diversification and extinction. We live in the
48 Anthropocene, an age where human activities have shifted the balance towards extinction (2).
49 Species extinction rates are estimated at ~1,000 times higher than the ‘background’ rate (3) but
50 could increase to 10,000 times higher should those species currently threatened with extinction
51 succumb to the pressures they face (4). Reversing these trends in species extinctions is a focus of
52 the Convention on Biological Diversity’s 2020 Strategic Plan for Biodiversity and its 20 Aichi
53 Targets, and is explicitly incorporated in the United Nation’s (UN) 2030 Agenda for Sustainable
54 Development and its 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

55 Reducing rates of biodiversity loss and achieving environmental goals requires understanding of
56 what is threatening biodiversity, where risks occur, how fast the threats are changing in type and
57 intensity, and what the most appropriate actions are needed to avert them (5). At face value this
58 seems straightforward. The Anthropocene overlaps with the Information Age, typified by a
59 deluge of data resulting from massive and widespread collection, digitization and dissemination
60 of information. The combination of crowd-sourced data, large-scale ground-based monitoring
61 schemes, and satellite earth observation missions is capable of providing unprecedented insight
62 into global threats to biodiversity, and how human interventions are altering those threats [eg.
63 (6)]. Ensuring that the current era of ‘big data’ does not overlook the sustainability agenda has
64 led to a UN report’s specific policy recommendations for mobilizing the data revolution for
65 sustainable development and environmental protection (7).

66 We examine the extent to which the Information Age is generating data on threats to
67 biodiversity. We show that the UN report’s conclusion (7) – “too much that needs to be known
68 remains unknown” – applies to threats to biodiversity. As a fundamental contribution to meeting
69 the global policy community’s aspirations for data relevant to the SDGs, we identify the major
70 data gaps for biodiversity threats, and suggest mechanisms for closing them.

71 **Data Deluge or Data Drought?**

72 We used a threat classification scheme (8; Figure 1), that while not without shortcomings (9, 10),
73 has been widely deployed for tens of thousands of conservation assessments for species, sites,
74 and projects. By ‘threat’, we mean ‘The proximate human activities or processes that have
75 caused, are causing, or may cause the destruction, degradation, and/or impairment of biodiversity

76 targets' (8). Under this definition, determining the impact of a threat on a species or ecosystem is
77 a separate process often included in a conservation assessment. We followed a structured data
78 collection procedure and associated each dataset with one or more classes of threat (see SOM for
79 details). We omit three threat classes from our analysis: two (Geological Events; Other Options)
80 are not exclusively anthropogenic and one (Climate Change and Severe Weather) due to
81 comprehensive treatment by the Fifth Assessment Report for the Intergovernmental Panel on
82 Climate Change. We restricted our search to spatial datasets with a global extent. We assume the
83 datasets identified by this initial search will grow as additional datasets and metadata become
84 known or are created.

85 We identified 290 unique datasets (Table S1, S2) across nine threat classes from data sources
86 ranging from remote sensing via satellites to citizen science initiatives (Figure S1). Six data
87 providers account for over a fifth of the entire catalogue of datasets. That so many datasets exist,
88 from a variety of sources, shows that the Information Age is generating geospatial data that may
89 be of use to biodiversity conservation policy and action. However, this apparent data deluge is
90 misleading: overall, our analysis reveals how little is actually available, at the global level, about
91 the spatial and temporal distribution of anthropogenic threats to biodiversity.

92 In order to assess whether data on different threats were available in proportion to their
93 importance for biodiversity, we used threat information (for threatened taxa which have been
94 comprehensively assessed) from the International Union for Conservation of Nature's Red List
95 of Threatened Species (IUCN Red List), the repository of information on the global extinction
96 risk of species. We find that the frequency of threats to marine or terrestrial and inland water
97 species on the Red List is disproportionate to the availability of datasets on those threats (Figure
98 1, Table S2). Biological Resource Use (including direct and indirect impacts of hunting, fishing,
99 and logging) is one of the most common threats to species, yet accounts for just 5% of threat
100 datasets.

101 To assess how much threat information is actionable and available we examined our datasets
102 with respect to five desirable data attributes (Table 1; see SOM for details). We note that
103 determining accurate attribute values was often difficult due to lack of formal metadata, creating
104 uncertainty in the absolute number of datasets which might satisfy all criteria. Regardless, our
105 filters remove all but fourteen datasets (5%) and not all threat classes are represented (Figure 2,
106 SOM and Table S1 for details). Further, datasets which do comply are often applicable to only a
107 few taxa or habitats. We provide dataset attributes as filters in Table S1.

108 **Business Models for Data Acquisition**

109 Our findings highlight major data gaps in understanding global threats to biodiversity. The
110 conservation community should aspire to at least one 'gold standard' dataset - that meets at a
111 minimum all five desirable attributes in Table 1 and is applicable to as many taxa as possible -
112 for each class and subclass of threat. Achieving this will require working with appropriate data
113 providers to develop business models for data acquisition that leverage new, longer-term funding
114 mechanisms and partnerships with government and the private sector.

115 *Partnerships with Data Owners and Creators*

116 In certain instances, the data required for effective conservation policy already exists, but are not
117 accessible (e.g. due to access cost, commercial considerations, or intellectual property
118 arrangements) to organizations or agencies mandated to conserve biodiversity. Sometimes these
119 data result from taxpayer-funded initiatives that, thanks to advocacy by the scientific community,
120 can result in major success stories (6). In 2008 NASA announced the free public release of the
121 Landsat image archive, dating back to 1978. Landsat imagery subsequently empowered the
122 scientific community to begin studies of land cover change at an actionable resolution. Since
123 then the European Space Agency opened the Sentinel Scientific Data hub, a free and open access
124 data portal for imagery from the Copernicus Sentinel missions, and the French Space Agency
125 declared five years or older SPOT satellite data, free of charge to noncommercial users.

126 Data held by the private sector also have the potential to fill major gaps. Gaining access will
127 require partnerships that respect the intellectual property of companies and the right of
128 conservation organizations to use these data for conservation actions. One such agreement
129 between the UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Center and the IHS Company enables
130 detailed and comprehensive data on oil and gas activity worldwide to be used for biodiversity
131 assessments. More broadly, the conservation community should emulate the UN's *Data for*
132 *Climate Action* initiative, which is laying the groundwork for working with the private sector to
133 access big data – with options ranging from companies making data freely available to specific
134 arrangements for scientists to access data within the company's protected network.

135 *Funding Mechanisms*

136 Successfully delivering the UN's 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development will require
137 exceptional financial support. In July 2015, the UN's Third International Conference for
138 Financing for Development produced a comprehensive framework – the Addis Ababa Action
139 Agenda (AAAA). The AAAA specifies >100 measures for how to finance the sustainable
140 development agenda, and explicitly recognizes the need to fund 'science, technology, innovation,
141 and capacity building', as well as 'data, monitoring, and follow-up' (11). In a separate note, the
142 UN Secretariat details linkages between each measure and the individual SDGs (12).

143 The AAAA 'encourage(s) the mobilization of financial resources from all sources and at all
144 levels to conserve and sustainably use biodiversity and ecosystems'. This is an important
145 recognition of the need to finance the achievement of SDG 15 (the most relevant to halting the
146 loss of biodiversity). Yet a lack of specific mention of the need to fund the data required to
147 achieve that goal is a critical omission.

148 **Enabling the Data Pipeline**

149 We note that for many threat classes the creation of a 'gold standard' dataset need not start from
150 scratch. Existing datasets and data pipelines, if provided with appropriate resources or mandates,
151 can be scaled up. We highlight this potential with two conservation issues where data scarcity on
152 threats is a major obstacle for achieving SDG 15.

153 *Specific Threat Class: Invasive and other problematic species*

154 Invasive alien species homogenize global biodiversity and are a significant threat to native
155 species, particularly those endemic to islands and specific ecosystems. National and regional
156 policy mechanisms (e.g. United States' *National Invasive Species Management Plan*, European
157 Union *Regulation 1143*) are in place to prevent, control, and minimize the impact of alien
158 species. Effective policy must be empowered with comprehensive data on which species are
159 where, and pathways by which they move (as the European Union's legal framework explicitly
160 requires). These data allow implementation agencies to monitor transmission routes, prevent
161 invasive species entry or departure, and respond rapidly to early detections. The Threatened
162 Island Biodiversity Database and the IUCN's Global Invasive Species Database are backed by
163 international institutions and networks of experts and, if appropriately resourced, are capable of
164 scaling up substantially to meet the five key data attributes we identify above. Such a database
165 would significantly enhance the capabilities of agencies to plan for, prevent, and respond to the
166 arrival of invasive species or manage or eradicate those already established.

167 *Data Gaps on Threats from Land Use and Cover Change*

168 Habitat loss is a leading cause of biodiversity decline, and most countries have local, regional,
169 and national legislation protecting natural landscapes. Yet globally we still do not have a
170 standard land use and cover change assessment tool for biodiversity conservation end users. New
171 and standardized land cover change detection approaches for the 2000-2010 interval are
172 emerging, at both high (30m) (e.g. *13*) and moderate (300m) resolution (*14*). Although these
173 products have promise, it is still impossible to obtain a global and standardized overview of how
174 natural landscapes are changing on a time scale that allows appropriate conservation action.
175 Changing this clearly requires breaking the practice of repeatedly modifying remote-sensing
176 algorithms – interesting for the field itself but exasperating for end-users – and instead agreeing
177 to a series of global maps comparable through time and space.

178 **Discussion**

179 To be useful, threat datasets must be integrated with conservation assessment processes. The
180 IUCN Red List compiles input from >10,000 species experts into easily and freely available
181 conservation assessments for nearly 80,000 species that influence international and national
182 policy mechanisms. Connecting such efforts to 'gold standard' datasets for each major class of
183 threat will help bring actionable insights into what conservation actions are needed, and where,
184 for the most imperiled species and populations on the planet. Our metadatabase is intended as an
185 initial and growing information portal to datasets relevant to biodiversity threats. Over time, we
186 recommend the inclusion of the significantly more numerous and available regional datasets
187 (even if they do not meet the dataset attributes identified here), and their integration to create
188 more globally representative information.

189 Leveraging the technology of the Information Age to counter biodiversity loss – a defining
190 feature of the Anthropocene, can help make a fundamental contribution towards the success of
191 the UN's 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Successfully doing so will require new and
192 innovative partnerships with data providers of all kinds, making sure relevant data sources are

193 made openly available and accessible, and a considerable investment of funding into scalable
194 data gathering initiatives.

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245 and LJ analyzed the data,

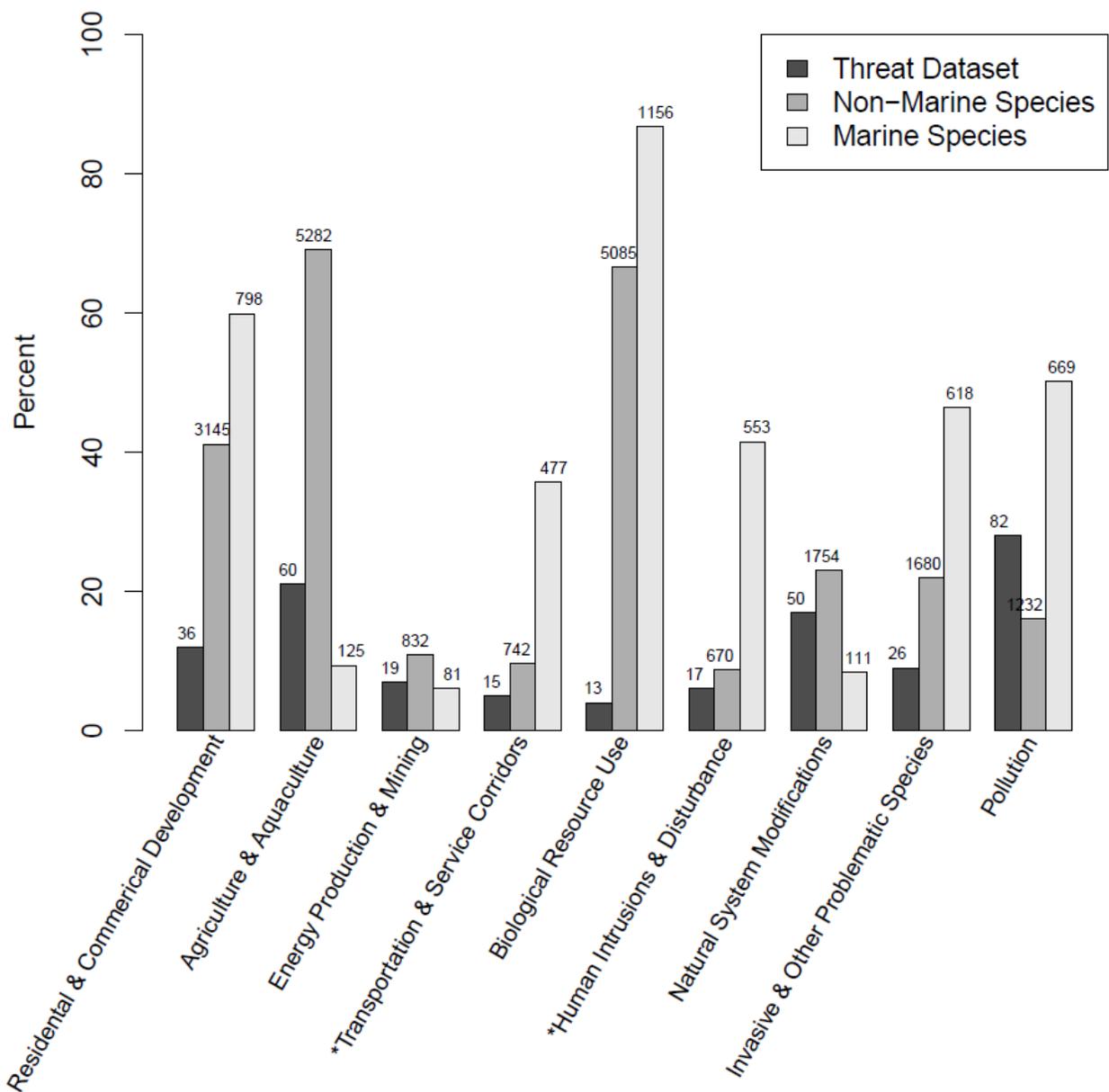
246 All data analyzed in this paper is presented in Tables S1 and S2.

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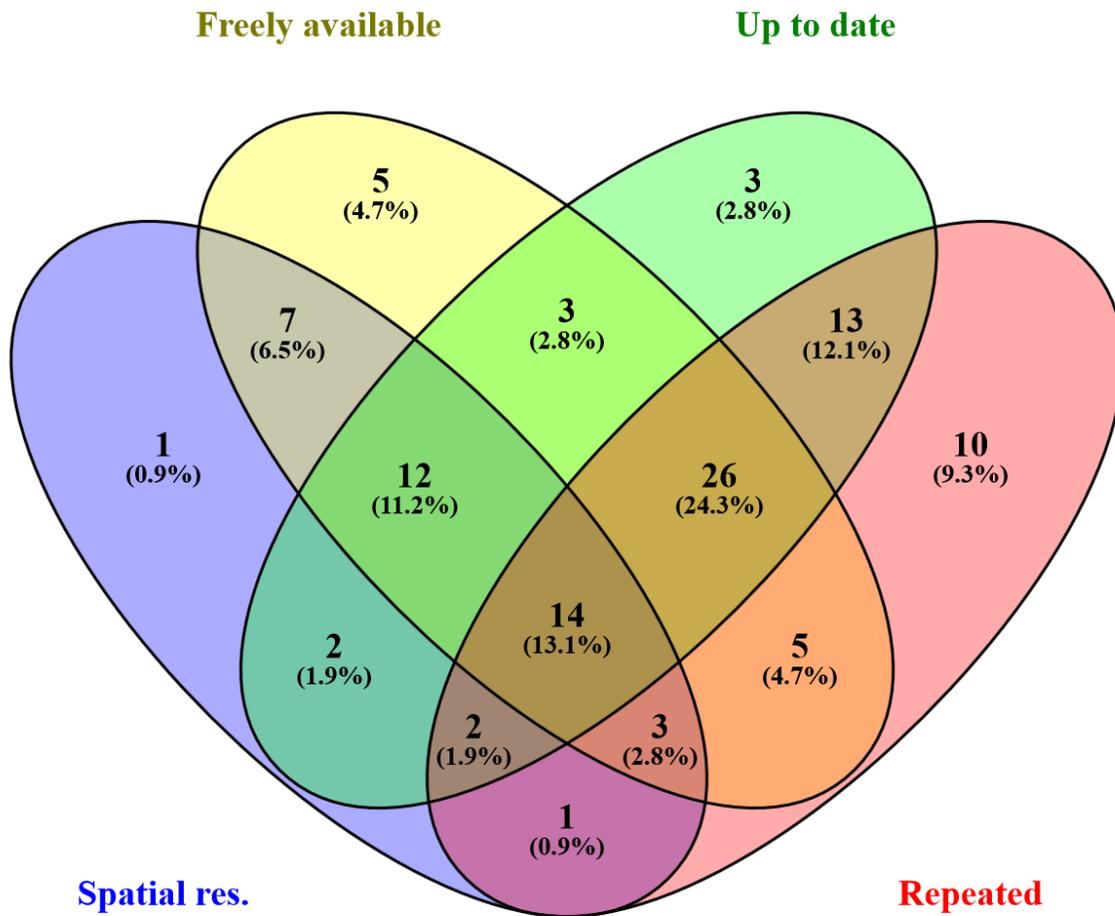
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254 **Figure 1:** The percent of all threat datasets (black) that relate to each threat class and the percent
 255 of threatened terrestrial and inland water (grey) and marine (white) species on the IUCN Red
 256 List impacted by each threat class. Number of datasets or species in each class is indicated above
 257 each bar. Threat classes not covered by a single dataset are denoted by an * in the figure labels.
 258 Details on species included can be found in Table S2.

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262 **Figure 2:** The number of datasets that meet each of four desirable dataset attributes outlined in
 263 Table 1 as well as being global in coverage and representing either models assessed for accuracy
 264 or empirical observations. Numbers in each intersection represent the number of datasets that
 265 meet those constraints. See Table S1 for a full list of datasets and their quality attributes.

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270 **Table 1:** The rationale for each of the five datasets attributes considered key for use in
 271 biodiversity threat assessments. These results are available as filters in Table S1.

Box 1 Desirable Dataset Attributes		
Attribute	Definition and justification	Datasets Available
<i>Freely Available</i>	Dataset is freely available (at least for non-commercial use). We note that being freely available is a necessary but insufficient criterion as depending on the skills and technical capacity of experts a free dataset may still be impossible to access.	153 (53%) datasets are freely accessible for non-commercial use.
<i>Spatial Resolution</i>	Dataset has a spatial resolution of $\leq 10\text{km} \times 10\text{km}$. Approximately one-quarter (23%) of species on the IUCN Red List have ranges smaller than $1,000 \text{ km}^2$. A spatial dataset of a threat with a resolution of $10\text{km} \times 10\text{km}$ would cover such a species' range with no more than 10 grid cells – a minimum desirable resolution for most analyses.	124 (43%) datasets are either of vector format or at a gridded resolution greater than $10\text{km} \times 10\text{km}$ (results are 171 (59%) when using a gridded resolution of $100\text{km} \times 100\text{km}$).
<i>Up to Date</i>	Dataset has been produced within the last decade: sufficiently recent to inform current and future policy.	149 (51%) datasets have been created or updated since 2006 with 195 (67%) since 2001.
<i>Repeated</i>	Dataset is available for at least two time-points. Monitoring and reporting require an understanding of changes over time. Such trends are fundamental for many conservation assessment criteria and without them it is impossible to understand the impact of regulatory policies.	163 (56%) datasets have been repeated at least once since they were created.
<i>Assessed for Accuracy</i>	Datasets that are modelled have been assessed for accuracy through a validation exercise, so that they can be used with confidence. Conservation assessments are generally subject to independent review, and the datasets used to create them must themselves be of sufficient scientific rigour.	112 (39%) datasets are likely either direct observations or model outputs that have been assessed for accuracy at a global scale. (172 (59%) when including regional validation).

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