



30 biodiversity targets are set to be updated in 2020, these results highlight the importance of  
31 proactive efforts to reduce demand for agricultural land to safeguard biodiversity.

32

### 33 **Main text**

34 Biodiversity declines are accelerating across the world<sup>1-3</sup>, 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 Endangered<sup>4</sup>).  
37 Habitat loss, driven by agricultural expansion, is the greatest threat to terrestrial vertebrates<sup>5,6</sup>.  
38 If current agricultural trends continue, pressures on biodiversity will increase substantially:  
39 projections based on population growth<sup>7</sup> 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<sup>8-11</sup>. In the face of these agricultural trends, conventional conservation  
42 approaches, such as site based conservation, may be insufficient to conserve biodiversity<sup>12,13</sup>.  
43 Additional proactive approaches that reduce the underlying threats to biodiversity—such as  
44 agricultural expansion— will likely be needed to complement existing efforts<sup>5,14</sup>.  
45 Responding to the impending biodiversity crisis requires decisions based on high resolution,  
46 spatially explicit and species-specific assessments to identify the species and landscapes most  
47 at risk from future agricultural expansion. Results from these assessments help plan  
48 appropriate conservation responses—such as species- or location-specific legislation—and to  
49 assess which proactive changes to food systems have the greatest potential to reduce future  
50 threats to biodiversity before they occur. The utility of existing analyses for conservation  
51 planning and action has been limited by coarse spatial resolutions; a focus on a relatively  
52 small suite of species or on generalized biodiversity metrics such as species richness; or using  
53 narrative pathways that are neither tied to current agricultural trajectories nor are able to

54 examine how specific changes to food systems might mitigate future biodiversity  
55 declines<sup>5,12,15,16</sup> (see Methods).

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

### 65 **Future patterns of agricultural expansion under Business-As-Usual**

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

79 the suitability of an area for agricultural production<sup>1</sup>, current agricultural land cover<sup>17</sup>,  
80 previous changes in agricultural land cover<sup>17</sup>, proximity to other agricultural land<sup>17</sup>, market  
81 access<sup>1</sup>, and the location of protected areas<sup>1</sup>. Specifically, we used satellite-derived historic  
82 land cover data<sup>17</sup> from 2002 to 2007 to fit region-specific multinomial models to estimate the  
83 probability that agricultural land cover increased, decreased, or remained the same from 2007  
84 to 2012. Next, we used the same satellite data to fit region-specific generalized linear models  
85 to estimate the magnitude of any such change from 2007 to 2012.

86 We then paired this two-part land allocation model with country-level estimates of  
87 agricultural land demand at five year intervals from 2010 to 2050 derived from the EAT-  
88 Lancet global food system model<sup>11</sup> that accounts for domestic food demand and international  
89 patterns of trade. For each country and each time step, the land allocation model was first  
90 used to probabilistically select cells to experience a change in agricultural land cover extent,  
91 and then second to estimate the magnitude of this change. This process was repeated until a  
92 country's estimated agricultural land demand was met, and replicated 25 times to account for  
93 the probabilistic nature of the land allocation model. Because spatial patterns of agricultural  
94 expansion were consistent across model runs (see Supplementary Figures 3, 4 for variation  
95 across model iterations), we report results using the mean of the 25 model iterations.

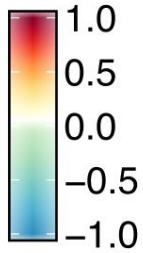
96 Under Business-As-Usual (i.e. based on current trajectories), we projected a total increase in  
97 in global cropland of 26% or 3.35 million km<sup>2</sup>. We projected particularly large increases in  
98 agricultural land throughout Sub-Saharan Africa (particularly tropical West Africa, the Rift  
99 Valley, and in the southern Sahel), South and Southeast Asia (particularly Bangladesh,  
100 Pakistan and southern Malaysia), and to a lesser extent Central and South America (large  
101 increases in northern Argentina, and much of Central America, smaller increases across  
102 southern Brazil) (Fig. 1, Supplementary Figure 5). These increases were driven by the EAT-  
103 Lancet model projecting income-dependent transitions towards diets that contain more

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

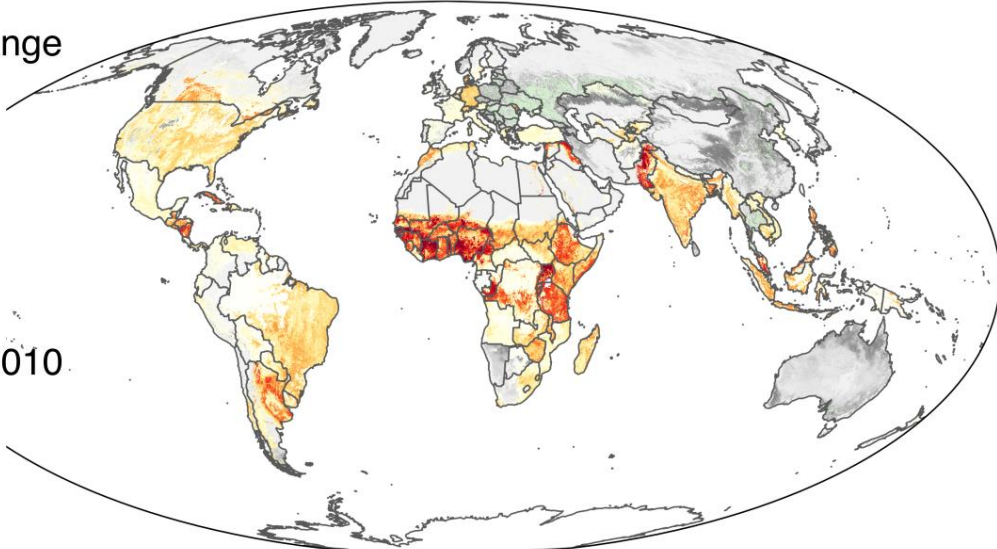
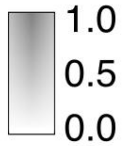
117 Our approach offers an empirically derived complement to integrated assessment models  
118 such as GLOBIOM<sup>18</sup>, MAgPIE<sup>19</sup> and IMAGE<sup>20</sup>. Despite the difference in modelling  
119 approaches, our projections are in broad agreement with those based on Shared  
120 Socioeconomic Pathways, with the exception of projected agricultural expansion in North  
121 America, which is not seen under all of the Pathways(19). This difference results from  
122 increased crop demand from the EAT-Lancet projections we used(11) and are in agreement  
123 with analyses based on other non-SSP projections(20). However, our projections are at a  
124 higher resolution than most existing efforts, while the modular and adaptable nature of the  
125 land allocation model means it can be updated as new data becomes available, and can be  
126 paired with any estimate of future agricultural land demand at local to global scales (see  
127 Supplementary Figure 1 for model construction).

### **a Projected change in total agricultural land 2010-2050**

Prop. change

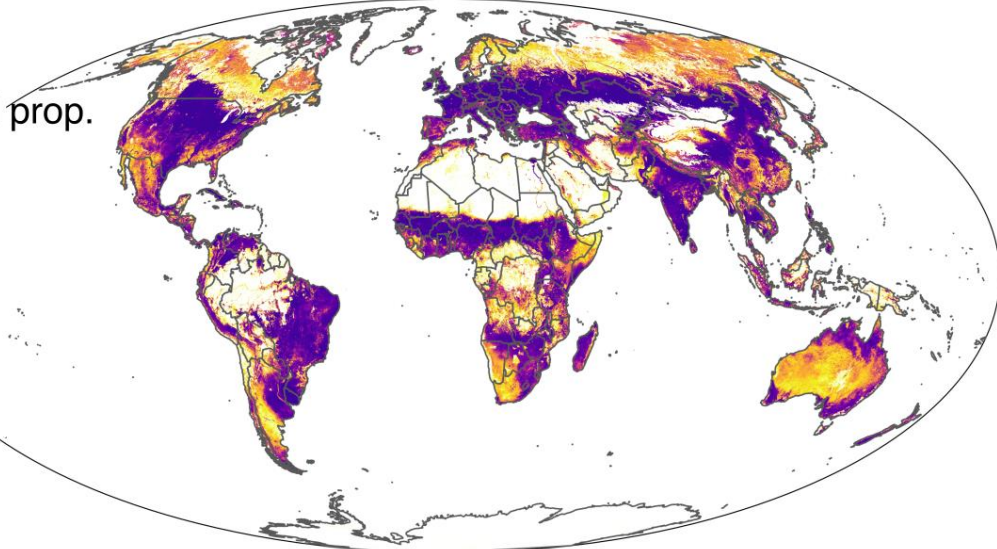
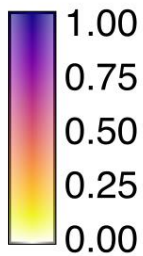


Prop. in 2010



### **b Projected total agricultural land 2050**

Projected prop.  
in 2050



128

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

130 *Projected change in the proportion of agricultural land (cropland plus pastureland, in*

131 *colour) in cells from 2010-2050, overlaid on proportions of agricultural land in 2010 for*

132 *cells not projected to experience a change in extent (in greyscale). Note the offset scale to*

133 *highlight areas with small decreases in the proportion of agricultural land. b Projected*

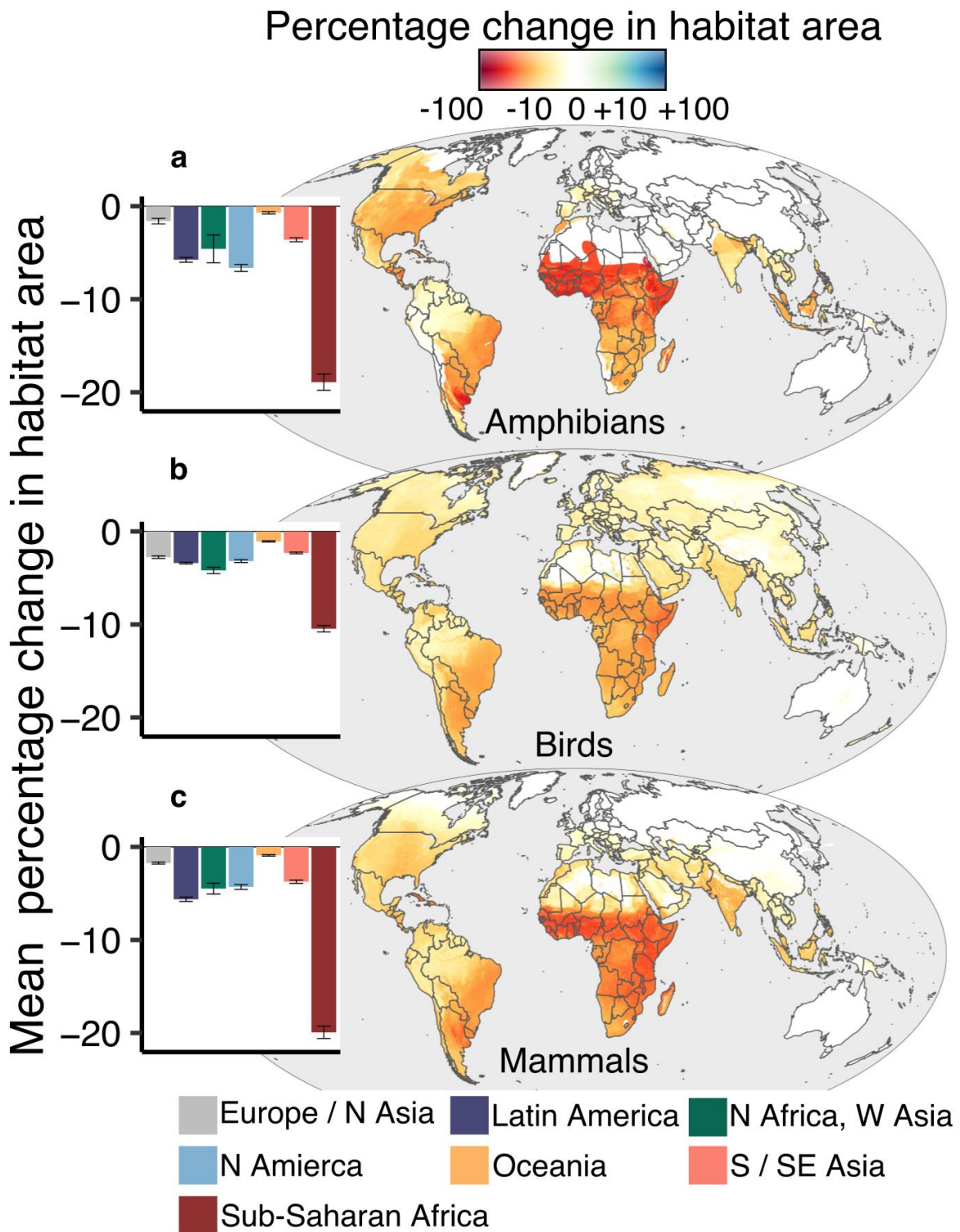
134 *proportion of agricultural land in cells in 2050.*

## 135 **Linking Business-As-Usual agricultural expansion to habitat losses**

136 We next estimated changes in habitat area<sup>21</sup> for each of 4,003 amphibian, 10,895 bird, and  
137 4,961 mammal species. To do so, we overlaid our projections of future agricultural cover  
138 with maps of current habitat for each species<sup>22–24</sup>, using species-specific assessments of  
139 whether each species can survive and reproduce in agricultural land<sup>4</sup> to calculate changes in  
140 total area of habitat for each species (see Methods). We acknowledge that, because a species'  
141 population density will vary across its available habitat due to differences in climate, land  
142 cover, or land-use intensity<sup>16,25</sup>, habitat loss may not linearly equate to population change.

143 In the Business-As-Usual scenario, we projected that 87.7% of species (17,409 species)  
144 would lose some habitat by 2050, 6.3% to have no change in habitat area, and 6.0% to have  
145 an increase in habitat area due to their survival in agricultural land, with 72.9% of these (877  
146 species) being birds. If natural habitats are allowed to regrow in abandoned agricultural land,  
147 these numbers are projected to be 76.1%, 6.1%, and 17.8%, respectively, with considerable  
148 benefits for some species (Supplementary Data 1). Henceforth, we report results assuming  
149 that habitats do not recover in abandoned agricultural land within the time period we  
150 analysed, although our overall conclusions do not differ if we alter this assumption  
151 (Supplementary Data 1). We projected a mean loss of  $5.8 \pm 0.1\%$  of habitat across all 19,859  
152 species in the analysis (range: 100% loss to 78.2% increase); across species losing habitat,  
153 this value was  $6.7 \pm 0.9\%$ , but with considerable variation between regions and species  
154 (Fig. 2). Projected mean habitat losses were greatest in Sub-Saharan Africa ( $14.4 \pm 0.3\%$   
155 across all species) with particularly large losses for amphibians in Equatorial West Africa  
156 (where five ecoregions had projected mean losses of over 25%, and 10 ecoregions with mean  
157 losses over 20%, Supplementary Table 4) and for mammals in East Africa (eight ecoregions  
158 had projected mean losses over 18%, Supplementary Table 4). Large mean habitat losses  
159 were also projected in the Atlantic Forest in Brazil, in Eastern Argentina, across Central

160 America and the Caribbean, and in parts of South and Southeast Asia (Fig. 2, Supplementary  
 161 Table 4).



162

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

164 *conditions for A amphibians B birds C mammals. Maps show the mean change in habitat*

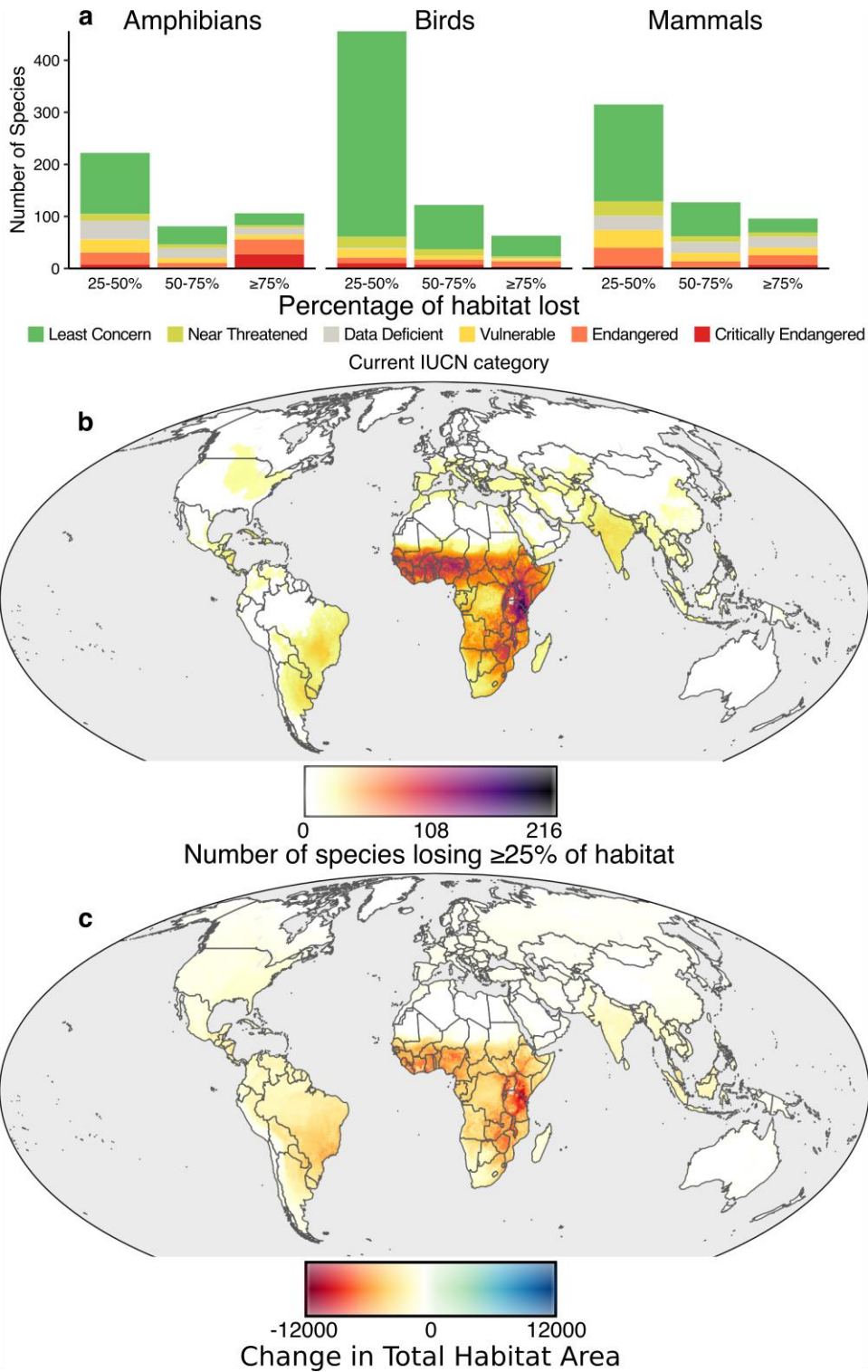


165 *area for all species within a cell, with values on a log<sub>10</sub> scale. Insets show the mean change*  
166 *in habitat area for all species within a region. See Supplementary Data 2 for which countries*  
167 *are included in each region.*

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

179 Overall biodiversity impact will be greatest where high rates of habitat loss coincide with  
180 large numbers of species (Supplementary Figure 9). Loss of total habitat area—the mean  
181 habitat loss within a cell multiplied by the number of species present—as well as the number  
182 of species losing at least 25% of their habitat were projected to be highest in Sub-Saharan  
183 Africa, particularly the Rift Valley and throughout tropical Western Africa (Fig. 3b, c). In  
184 Sub-Saharan Africa 22.5% of species (941 species: 179 amphibians, 406 birds, and 356  
185 mammals) were projected to lose at least 25% of their remaining habitat, with 44 out of 52  
186 Sub-Saharan African countries containing at least 25 such species (Supplementary Data 7).  
187 Projected habitat losses were also high in Latin America, particularly southeast Brazil and the  
188 remaining Atlantic Forest, with 246 species, including 99 amphibians, projected to lose at  
189 least 25% of their habitat (Fig. 3b). Our results highlight the disproportionate share of local,

190 regional, or even global extinctions that Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America are projected  
191 to account for, containing 93% of the species projected to lose  $\geq 25\%$  of their remaining  
192 habitat. These continent-wide patterns of habitat loss could radically transform ecosystems  
193 that hold a large proportion of the world's biodiversity, particularly of large mammals (in  
194 Sub-Saharan Africa) and birds and amphibians (in Latin America)<sup>1</sup>.



195

196 **Fig. 3. Severity of projected habitat losses from 2010-2050** **A** Number of species projected to  
 197 lose  $\geq 25\%$  of their 2010 habitat by 2050, split by current IUCN status **B** Global distribution  
 198 of species projected to lose  $\geq 25\%$  of their 2010 habitat by 2050 **C** Projected changes in total  
 199 habitat (mean habitat loss in a cell multiplied by the number of species present) by 2050.

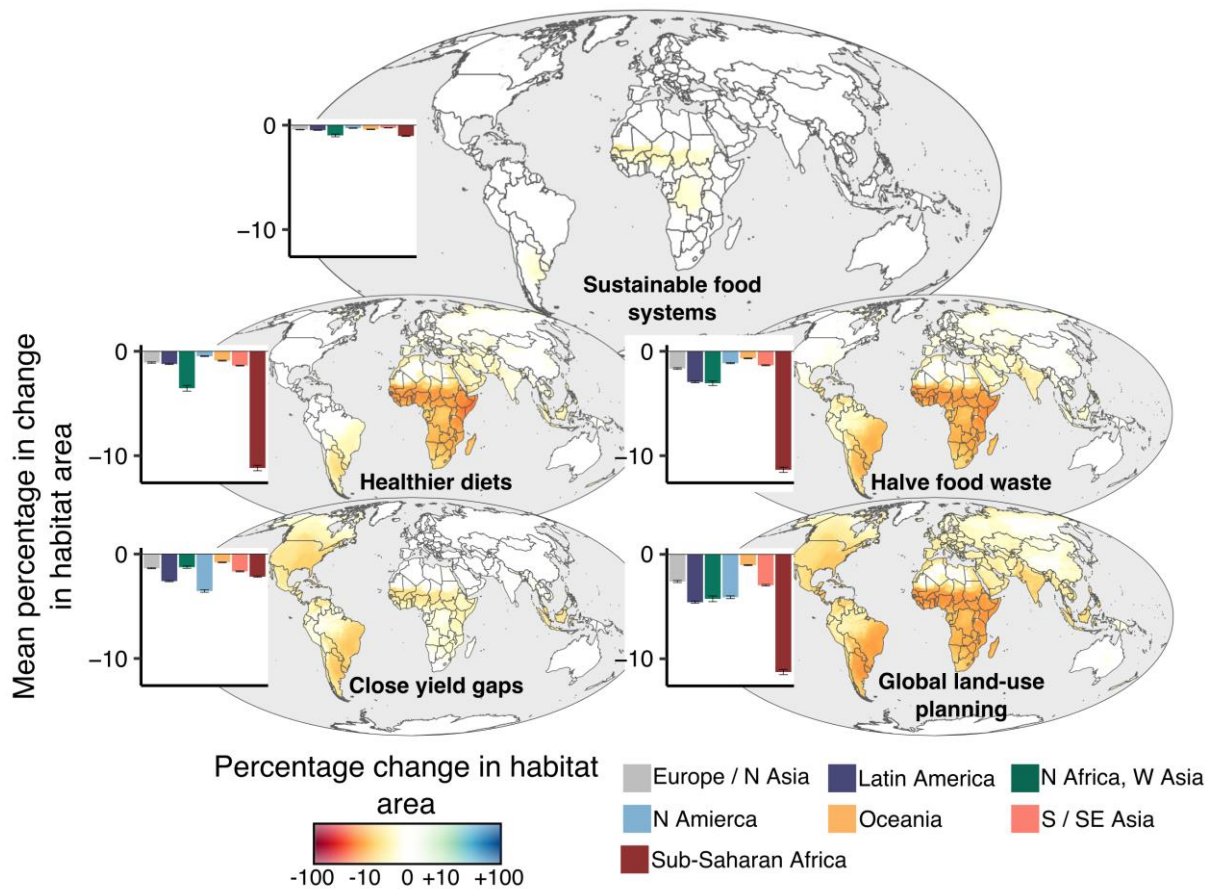
200 We projected small decreases in agricultural land in parts of Europe, Central and Northern  
201 Asia, China, Australia, and New Zealand (Fig 1a). If these lands are allowed to revert to a  
202 natural state— a process which may take decades or over a century<sup>26</sup>—then there is the  
203 possibility for small increases in habitat area in these regions. However, these potential  
204 increases for some species were far outweighed by projected losses in habitat area for others,  
205 and allowing for recovery after habitat regrowth and restoration has a minor impact to the  
206 overall projections of widespread habitat loss across all species examined (Supplementary  
207 Data 1).

### 208 **Proactive changes to food systems to reduce threats to biodiversity**

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 a proactive approach,  
212 we developed a “Sustainable Food Systems” scenario that implemented four changes to food  
213 systems: a global transition to healthier diets; halving food loss and waste; closing crop yield  
214 gaps; and global agricultural land-use planning to avoid competition between food production  
215 and habitat protection. In addition, to identify the relative impacts of specific changes to the  
216 food system, we investigated the impacts of each approach individually. We used previously  
217 published scenarios for diets, food waste, and yield increases<sup>5,11</sup>, and used projected habitat  
218 losses in the Business-As-Usual scenario to identify the countries that could most benefit  
219 from global agricultural land-use planning. In each case, we assumed each approach was  
220 steadily adopted, such that the complete transition was only achieved in 2050 (see Methods  
221 for details).

222 Under the Sustainable Food Systems scenario, we projected that all regions would see mean  
223 habitat losses of 1% or less by 2050 (Fig. 4): that is, with global coordination and rapid  
224 action, it should be possible to provide healthy diets for the global population without major

225 habitat losses. The greatest benefits compared to Business-As-Usual were in Sub-Saharan  
 226 Africa, where we projected a mean loss of habitat of  $1.0 \pm 0.04\%$  under Sustainable Food  
 227 Systems compared with a mean loss of  $14.4 \pm 0.3\%$  under Business-As-Usual (Fig. 4,  
 228 Supplementary Figures 10, 11). If natural habitats are allowed to regrow in abandoned  
 229 agricultural land, then we projected mean habitat increases in every region (Supplementary  
 230 Data 1).



231

232 **Figure 4. Projected changes in mean habitat area from 2010-2050 under alternative**  
 233 **scenarios.** Maps show the mean change for all species of all taxa in a cell, with values on a  
 234 *log10* scale. Insets show the mean change in habitat area for all species within a region. The  
 235 lower four panels show the results from scenarios using single approaches, the top panel  
 236 (“**Sustainable food systems**”) show the combination of all four approaches. See

237 *Supplementary Data 2 for which countries are included in each region. Patterns for total*  
238 *habitat are similar (Supplementary Figure 12).*

239 Perhaps more importantly, habitat losses were far less severe for the species most heavily  
240 impacted under business-as-usual. Globally, only 33 species were projected to lose more than  
241 25% of their habitat, compared to 1,280 under Business-As-Usual. Thus, our analyses  
242 demonstrate that addressing the underlying drivers of agricultural expansion has the potential  
243 to greatly benefit the most at-risk species, thereby reducing extinction risks. However, the  
244 majority of species (81.6%) were still projected to lose small amounts of habitat, suggesting  
245 that conventional conservation measures will continue to be vital to protect biodiversity.

246 The impacts of individual approaches varied regionally. Closing yield gaps was projected to  
247 have the largest overall benefits (Fig. 4) and was particularly effective in North Africa, West  
248 Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa where large yield gaps remain<sup>27,28</sup>. Under this scenario only 33  
249 species in these regions were projected to lose more than 25% of their habitat, compared to  
250 953 under Business-As-Usual. Projected benefits were considerably lower in other regions,  
251 where yield gaps are smaller, but still reduced the number of such species from 361 to 103.

252 The magnitude of these projected benefits supports, and is supported by, recent analyses  
253 investigating the land-saving potential of closing yield gaps across the world<sup>1,2</sup> Transitioning  
254 to healthier diets and reducing food waste had considerable benefits—while not completely  
255 eliminating habitat losses—particularly in wealthier regions with high per capita consumption  
256 of both calories and animal-based foods, and in regions such as South America with high  
257 consumption of animal-based foods (Fig. 4). In contrast, projected benefits from international  
258 land-use planning were far smaller, with 1,026 species being still projected to lose at least  
259 25% of their habitat. The biggest benefits were projected in Sub-Saharan Africa, where all the  
260 countries with reduced agricultural land demand under this scenario were located, but even  
261 here there were 646 such species (compared to 942 under Business-As-Usual, 673 under

262 healthy diets, and 695 under halved food waste). By analyzing the potential benefit of  
263 individual food system changes, we found that combining different approaches had  
264 synergistic benefits. For example, a country projected to see a 20% fall in food demand under  
265 the halved food waste scenario and a 50% increase yields under the close yield gaps scenario  
266 would see 20% and 33% reductions in land demand under each scenario respectively,  
267 compared to Business-As-Usual. However, when combined, the area required falls even  
268 further, to just 53% of Business-As-Usual demand. This results in the avoided habitat loss  
269 under Sustainable Food Systems being greater than the sum of the avoided loss under the four  
270 constituent scenarios (Fig. 4).

### 271 **Conclusions: Maintaining biodiversity in a world with 10 billion people**

272 Our projections suggest that under business as usual agricultural expansion will continue to  
273 drive widespread and severe biodiversity declines, but that these could be avoided with  
274 concerted efforts to address food consumption and production as ultimate drivers of  
275 biodiversity loss. Our approach and results are immediately relevant to international efforts  
276 for the development of new strategic goals and targets for 2030 and 2050 under the auspices  
277 of the Convention on Biological Diversity. We identify which policy approaches have the  
278 greatest potential to combat the underlying drivers of future biodiversity declines in different  
279 countries and highlight, at spatial scales relevant to conservation action, the species and  
280 landscapes most at risk. These results can support proactive planning of both changes to the  
281 wider food system, and on-the-ground conservation schemes to mitigate threats.

282 Our approach offers an empirically derived complement to integrated assessment models  
283 such as GLOBIOM<sup>18</sup>, MAgPIE<sup>19</sup> and IMAGE<sup>20</sup>. Despite the difference in modelling  
284 approaches, our projections are in broad agreement with those based on Shared  
285 Socioeconomic Pathways, with the exception of projected agricultural expansion in North  
286 America, which is not seen under all of the Pathways(19). This difference results from

287 increased crop demand from the EAT-Lancet projections we used(11) and are in agreement  
288 with analyses based on other non-SSP projections(20). Our projections are at a higher  
289 resolution than most existing efforts, while the modular and adaptable nature of the land  
290 allocation model means it can be updated as new data becomes available, and can be paired  
291 with any estimate of future agricultural land demand at local to global scales (see  
292 Supplementary Figure 1 for model construction). The adaptable and updateable nature of our  
293 approach offers particular improvements when accounting for non-linearities in agricultural  
294 expansion. For example, a new road being built or the removal of a protected area could lead  
295 to rapid agricultural expansion in a region that neither our approach nor integrated assessment  
296 models highlight as vulnerable. Our approach, however, allows for the rapid inclusion of  
297 these changes into projections by adjusting the value of explanatory variables (in these cases  
298 travel time and the presence of a protected area) and recalculating the probability of future  
299 agricultural expansion. Thus, we hope that our approach can help provide a dynamic and  
300 responsive tool for decision makers to investigate the potential impacts of different policies.

301 Future human activities will likely have even greater impacts on biodiversity than those  
302 projected by our scenarios. Anthropogenic climate change is likely to drive widespread  
303 changes in ecosystems both directly, through impacts on species' potential distributions<sup>1</sup> and  
304 indirectly, by affecting agricultural yields<sup>1</sup> and the relative suitability of different regions<sup>1</sup>.

305 Uncertainty in how changing precipitation and temperature regimes might affect farmer  
306 profitability, and thus the future location of agricultural lands, preclude a quantitative  
307 assessment of the impact of climate change on biodiversity. Likewise, increasing agricultural  
308 yields—the proactive approach estimated to have the largest potential benefits for reducing  
309 global habitat loss—may also have negative consequences not accounted for in this analysis.

310 Increasing crop yields—even if sustainably—often has negative biodiversity consequences  
311 for species which exist in or near agricultural lands. As such, all scenarios will likely see a



312 decline in habitat suitability (and thus biodiversity) on cropland, an effect that is likely to be  
313 exacerbated if yield gaps are closed. Other human impacts, such as the habitat fragmentation  
314 that accompanies land clearing; over-hunting; invasive species; and pollution also threaten  
315 biodiversity<sup>5,6,31,32</sup>. However, the proactive changes to the global food system that we discuss  
316 could also help reduce these threats. For example, reducing demand for new cropland would  
317 reduce habitat fragmentation, reduce greenhouse gas emissions from land-use change, and  
318 lessen the opportunity costs of protected areas for local people<sup>33</sup>, thus increasing protection  
319 from hunting.

320 Here, we demonstrate the potential benefits of actions covered under our ‘sustainable food  
321 system’ to conservation, but such recommendations remain a long way from specific policy  
322 recommendations. Actions will require locally appropriate policies, taking into account  
323 individual countries’ socio-economic and governance environments, the cultural acceptance  
324 of different strategies, and on-the-ground capacity to implement strategies. Past successes can  
325 provide insights into how to ensure that strategies are both effective and maintain fair and  
326 equitable access to food, for example, through increasing crop yields<sup>34–36</sup>, shifting to healthier  
327 dietary patterns<sup>37–39</sup>, reducing food and crop waste<sup>40,41</sup>, and implementing landscape-scale  
328 land-use planning<sup>42</sup>. Previous efforts to increase sustainability can also be used to avoid  
329 unintended consequences, such as when increases in agricultural yields promote local  
330 agricultural expansion<sup>43</sup>.

331 Completely achieving the sustainable food systems we investigated may not be feasible in all  
332 situations, but there will likely be benefits of even the partial implementation of these  
333 approaches. As we approach the updating of the Convention on Biological Diversity’s targets  
334 for global biodiversity conservation, now in 2021, and the halfway point of the SDGs in  
335 2022, our results strongly suggest there are synergies between biodiversity conservation and  
336 sustainable development. The approaches we investigated will also be key to meeting other

337 SDGs: in particular raising reducing food waste, and shifting to healthier diets supports Goals  
338 2 (“No hunger”), 3 (“Good health”), and 12 (Sustainable consumption), but also economic  
339 and social development (Goal8, “Good jobs and economic growth”) and climate action (Goal  
340 13, “Climate action”), bringing further benefits to people, biodiversity, and the wider  
341 environment **REFs**. These efforts to change how we produce and consume food will be a  
342 challenge, but one which cannot be avoided if we are to safeguard species for future  
343 generations.

## 344 **Methods**

345 To project impacts of future agricultural land-cover change on biodiversity, we linked a land  
346 demand model, a land allocation model, and a biodiversity model in a flexible framework  
347 (Supplementary Figure 1). This approach to be readily adapted, for example to different  
348 future scenarios or different spatial scales, or to incorporate new data as it becomes available.  
349 Collectively, this approach enables us to project changes in land cover and their impact on  
350 habitat availability for individual species at a resolution of 1.5 x 1.5km for every 5 years from  
351 2010 to 2050. Our analysis includes nearly 20,000 species of birds, mammals, and  
352 amphibians, and 152 nations that occupy >99% of Earth’s ice-free land and contain >99% of  
353 current agricultural land (see Supplementary Data 2). Full details of model specification,  
354 datasets used, and sensitivity analyses are in Supplementary Information.

## 355 **Land Demand Model**

### 356 *Projections of agricultural land demand under Business-As-Usual*

357 We used income-dependent projections of country-specific agricultural production under  
358 Business-As-Usual conditions (i.e. continuing historic trajectories) from EAT-Lancet  
359 Commission<sup>11</sup>, pairing them with the United Nation’s medium-fertility population  
360 projection<sup>65,66</sup> and previously published yield projections<sup>1</sup>. We did not use the population

361 projections used in EAT-Lancet because they are derived from Shared Socioeconomic  
362 Pathway (SSP) scenarios<sup>64</sup> and so are not updated to account for recent population trends. As  
363 such, SSP 2—the pathway most similar to current Business-As-Usual trajectories—projects  
364 approximately 570 million fewer people worldwide than current UN medium variant  
365 population projections<sup>1</sup>. Additionally, we did not use the yield scenarios from the EAT-  
366 Lancet projections because they assume increases in future crop yields at faster-than-historic  
367 trajectories<sup>11</sup>, which is not been supported by historic data<sup>1</sup>. We instead used published crop  
368 yield forecasts that project crop yields increase along historic linear trajectories, but cannot  
369 surpass current country-specific maximum potential yields<sup>1-3</sup>.

370 We projected cropland demand for each country in each 5-year time period from 2010 to  
371 2050. To do so, we divided projections of demand for national food production (derived from  
372 combining EAT-Lancet projections with UN population projections) by crop yield  
373 projections. EAT-Lancet estimates of current cropland are based on FAO data<sup>1</sup>, while the  
374 Land Allocation Model is based on MODIS satellite data<sup>1</sup>. We therefore harmonised EAT-  
375 Lancet projections with satellite data by: (1) calculating proportional change in cropland in  
376 each 5-year time period (here called a “5-year target”) from 2010-2050; (2) estimating the  
377 total cropland in each country in 2010 based on MODIS data; (3) multiplying this satellite-  
378 derived estimate by the projected change in proportional demand; and (4) capping country-  
379 specific land-demand projections at FAO estimates of potential arable land in each country<sup>55</sup>.  
380 This ensures continuity between datasets but could lead to under-projecting agricultural  
381 expansion in countries where cropland is under-detected by satellite data (e.g. very small  
382 areas are farmed, or farming is largely under dense tree cover).

383 We assumed the area of pastureland remained constant for each country, following recent  
384 patterns<sup>55</sup>, reallocating pastureland within a country if cropland expanded into existing  
385 pastureland. See Supplementary Information for more details.

386 ***Projections of agricultural land demand under alternative future scenarios***

387 To investigate the impact of proactive policies that could reduce future cropland demand we  
388 repeated the Business-As-Usual analysis with five alternative scenarios:

389 (1) **Healthy diets:** Diets transition from current diets to healthier composition and caloric  
390 quantity<sup>11</sup>.

391 (2) **Halved food waste:** Food loss and waste throughout entire food supply chains is  
392 reduced from current rates<sup>67</sup> by 25% in 2030 and halved by 2050.

393 (3) **Close yield gaps:** Yields increase linearly from current yields to 80% of the estimated  
394 maximum potential by 2050. This upper bound was chosen as increasing yields above  
395 80% often decreases economic profits<sup>68</sup>.

396 (4) **International land-use planning:** Agricultural production shifts from the 25  
397 countries projected to have the greatest mean losses of suitable habitat across all  
398 species to countries where less than 10% of species are threatened with extinction and  
399 less than 10% of species would qualify as being threatened with extinction under  
400 IUCN Criteria B2<sup>1</sup> under Business-As-Usual in 2050. The shift in agricultural  
401 production is gradual, such that an additional 10% of total food demand is imported  
402 by 2030 and by 20% in 2050.

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

408 (5) **Sustainable food systems:** All four approaches were adopted simultaneously.

409 By 2050, each scenario individually—with the exception of international land-use planning—  
410 is estimated to reduce global demand for cropland by at least 2.5 million square kilometres,  
411 while simultaneous adoption of all four scenarios would reduce global land demand by  
412 ~7.5 million square kilometres. International land-use planning had smaller impacts, reducing  
413 global demand by 220,000 square kilometres. See Supplementary Information for more  
414 explanation on the alternative land demand scenarios.

### 415 **Land Allocation Model**

416 We developed a novel and highly resolute (1.5km x 1.5km) spatial allocation model using  
417 observed changes in land cover to project future spatial patterns of agricultural land-cover  
418 change. We fitted relationships between empirically observed changes in cropland or  
419 pastureland and a set of key explanatory variables and assumed that these fitted relationships  
420 remain constant into the future. Thus, we are not simply extrapolating past changes in  
421 agricultural land into the future, but rather basing projections on an understanding of the  
422 factors that shape how spatial patterns of agricultural land-cover evolves through time.

423 By separating projections of agricultural land demand from its spatial allocation, our  
424 approach enables investigation of how specific interventions might influence future land-use  
425 change and biodiversity loss. Our projections are at a far higher resolution than existing  
426 projections of agricultural land-use change, e.g. GLOBIOM (5-30 arc minutes; approximately  
427 100-2500 km<sup>2</sup> at the equator)<sup>18</sup>, CLUMondo, and MAgPie (30 arc minutes; approximately  
428 2500 km<sup>2</sup> at the equator)<sup>19,44</sup>. This allows stakeholders to identify areas likely to experience  
429 large biodiversity declines at the spatial scales at which conservation actions and policies are  
430 implemented.

431 ***Modelling past changes in agricultural land***

432 To understand past drivers of change in agricultural land we applied a two-stage modelling  
433 process applied to each 1.5 x 1.5 km terrestrial cell on earth. First, we fitted a multinomial  
434 regression to estimate the probability a cell experienced a change in the proportion of  
435 agricultural land during a 5-year period. Secondly, we fitted generalized linear models  
436 (GLMs) to estimate the magnitude of this change. We fitted separate models for cropland and  
437 pastureland because of differences in the relative importance of factors influencing their  
438 dynamics.

439 ***Data Inputs***

440 Land-use change is driven by interacting biophysical and socio-economic forces<sup>45</sup>. We  
441 reviewed land-use change literature, identifying potential drivers of agricultural expansion  
442 and including those where global data was available at appropriate spatial resolutions. We  
443 therefore included in our models: extent and surrounding agricultural land; historic changes  
444 in agricultural land; agro-ecological suitability; travel time to large cities (>50,000 people) as  
445 a proxy for market access; and the presence of a protected area in a cell<sup>1-7</sup>. See  
446 Supplementary Information for more detail and data sources.

447 We resampled all data to 1.5 x 1.5 km Mollweide projection using the `resample()` function in  
448 the raster package<sup>1</sup> in R<sup>1</sup>. Note that agro-ecological suitability was originally at a coarser  
449 resolution<sup>1</sup> (Supplementary Table 2), adding a degree of uncertainty to our projections. All  
450 other input data was originally at a higher resolution.

451 ***Model fitting***

452 We fitted region-specific multinomial regressions to estimate the probability that each cell  
453 experienced a change in cropland or pastureland extent and then used GLMs to estimate the  
454 magnitude of this change. Because drivers of cropland and pasture expansion differ by region

455 (Supplementary Data 3-6), we fitted separate models for each IUCN region<sup>59</sup> and for  
456 cropland and pastureland.

457 We *a priori* included the same explanatory variables for all models (although see  
458 Supplementary Table 2 for differences between cropland and pastureland models) and used  
459 cell-specific values for each explanatory variable.

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

#### 466 *Probability of Change in Agricultural Extent*

467 Our first response variable was whether the proportion of cropland or pastureland in a cell  
468 increased, decreased, or remained constant from 2007 to 2012. To account for uncertainty in  
469 MODIS data, we classified cells as having a constant agricultural extent if the proportion of a  
470 cell under agricultural land cover changed by less than 0.025 from 2007 to 2012. We then  
471 used the R package {nnet}<sup>60</sup> to fit a multinomial regression model to estimate the probability  
472 a cell increased, decreased, or did not change in cropland or pastureland extent from 2007 to  
473 2012.

#### 474 *Magnitude of Change in Agricultural Extent*

475 To estimate the magnitude of agricultural cover change in a cell, we fitted separate GLMs to  
476 cells that experienced increases in agricultural land and those that experienced decreases.  
477 This resulted in three GLMs for each IUCN region: cropland increases, cropland decreases,  
478 and pastureland increases. We did not fit models for pastureland decreases because we

479 assume pastureland extent remains constant in each country. We fitted models using the  
480 glm() function in the {stats} package in R<sup>61</sup>, with a gamma error distribution and a log-link  
481 function to bound estimates between 0 and 1.

### 482 *Modelling results and accuracy*

483 Model coefficients and accuracies are shown in Supplementary Table 3 and Supplementary  
484 Data 3-6. See Supplementary Information for more details on modeling testing, results and  
485 accuracy.

### 486 *Modelling Accuracy: Probability of Change in Agricultural Extent*

487 We assessed model accuracy by classifying cells as having expanded or contracted from  
488 2007-2012 based on the cell's most probabilistic modelled outcome. We then compared these  
489 classifications with actual changes over 2007-2012.

490 Model accuracy varied across regions, ranging from ~62.5% (Caribbean) to ~95% (North  
491 Africa) for cropland and 59% (Oceania) to 77% (South and Southeast Asia) (Supplementary  
492 Table 3) for pastureland. This compares with a 33% chance of randomly selecting the correct  
493 outcome. The lower accuracy of pastureland predictions is possibly due to MODIS data not  
494 differentiating between natural grasslands or savannas and artificial pastures<sup>17</sup>.

### 495 **Agricultural Projections: Projecting the location and magnitude of future** 496 **agricultural land cover change**

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



503 estimated the magnitude of these increases or decreases using the GLMs. See Supplementary  
504 Information for more detail on how the location and magnitude of future agricultural land  
505 cover change was projected.

#### 506 *Cropland expansion*

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

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

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

#### 521 *Changes in pastureland*

522 Following recent trends in global pastureland<sup>55,71</sup> and the EAT-Lancet projections, we did not  
523 project changes in countries' areas of pastureland. However, we did allow cropland to expand  
524 into pastureland. This displaced pastureland was then reallocating within the country using  
525 the allocation process described above for crops, but using the region-specific models for  
526 pastureland and additionally assuming pastureland cannot expand into cropland. To avoid

527 overestimating future pastureland extent, we limit pastureland expansion to cells identified as  
528 having livestock by Gridded Livestock of the World in 2010. If pastureland extent could not  
529 expand adequately to meet the five-year target, we assumed that shortfalls were compensated  
530 by livestock intensification<sup>5,72</sup>.

### 531 *Adjusting probabilities and the magnitude of changes*

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

### 539 *Consistency of projections*

540 Because the land allocation model is probabilistic, we repeated it 25 times, calculating the  
541 mean and standard deviation of the extent of cropland and pasture in each cell for each five-  
542 year time period and using the mean value in our analyses.

543 The allocation model produced consistent projections (Supplementary Figure 3). The median  
544 global coefficient of variation (standard deviation / mean) in 2050 was 0.26 for cropland and  
545 <0.001 for pastureland (Supplementary Figure 4), indicating variation in agricultural extent  
546 was small relative to estimated mean agricultural extent.

### 547 *Potential impacts of climate change on agricultural land*

548 We did not include the potential impact of climate change on AES or agricultural yields in  
549 our models. Doing so would rely on a large number of untestable assumptions over farmer  
550 and policy responses to environmental change, and is further hampered by a lack of

551 consensus of how climate change might affect AES and crop yields. See Supplementary  
552 Information for a longer discussion of how climate change might affect future patterns of  
553 agricultural land cover change.

554 The flexibility and adaptability of our approach allows for the easy inclusion of climate  
555 change impacts in the future. This can be done by adjusting future yield projections based on  
556 local conditions and adaptive capabilities, or by adjusting future AES to capture how  
557 changing climates might affect the relative suitability of different regions.

## 558 **Biodiversity Model**

### 559 *Current area of habitat*

560 Maps of suitable habitat (referred to as Area of Habitat, AOH<sup>21</sup>) were produced for 4,003  
561 amphibians, 10,895 birds, and 4,961 mammal species<sup>21-24</sup>. These maps were originally  
562 developed at 300 x 300m resolution through deductive habitat suitability models integrating  
563 species ranges with data on suitable land-cover and elevations<sup>21</sup>. These habitat models  
564 reliably predict species distribution over wide geographical and taxonomic extents at the 1-  
565 km resolution<sup>23,24</sup>. Supplementary Figure 9 shows the species richness patterns created from  
566 the AOH maps.

### 567 *Species' habitat tolerances*

568 We used IUCN data to define whether species are able to survive in agricultural land<sup>1</sup>. For  
569 each species, we recorded if habitats were “suitable” or “marginal” and took the maximum  
570 value of all habitats that qualify as either cropland or pastureland. i.e. if a species has “Arable  
571 Land” as “marginal” and “Plantations” as “suitable”, we defined cropland as “suitable” for  
572 the species. See Supplementary Information for a longer description on species habitat  
573 tolerances.

## 574 *Current Area of Habitat*

575 We next estimated the global area of suitable habitat for each species in 2010. We first  
576 calculated the overlap between each species' suitable habitat and current cropland and  
577 pastureland (from MODIS data) and subtracted the area of agricultural land from the habitat  
578 maps, adjusting for suitability of cropland or pastureland: we assigned "suitable", "marginal",  
579 and "unsuitable" habitats a value of 0, .5, and 1, respectively, and multiplied this value by the  
580 overlap between habitat and agriculture in each cell. Thus, the value in each cell indicates the  
581 proportion of the cell suitable for a species. We then summed this value to estimate of area of  
582 suitable habitat in 2010. See Supplementary Information for more detail on how current area  
583 of habitat was calculated.

## 584 **Biodiversity Projections**

585 We estimated future changes in area of suitable habitat for 19,859 species of terrestrial  
586 amphibians, birds, and mammals, repeating the process described above for each 5-year time  
587 period from 2010 to 2050. We assumed species were unable to recolonise areas where  
588 agricultural land was abandoned to provide conservative estimates of biodiversity gains from  
589 agricultural abandonment. Altering this assumption such that species are able to colonise  
590 abandoned agricultural areas (as is often observed in long-term dynamics<sup>80</sup>) has little overall  
591 impact on our results: with recolonisation allowed, 17.8% of species were projected to see  
592 their area of habitat area increase, compared to 6.1% without recolonisation, and the mean  
593 change in habitat area for these species increased from 1.2% to 2.2% (Supplementary Data  
594 1). Across all species, mean changes were even smaller, changing from a mean loss of 5.8%  
595 to a mean loss of 5.3% with recolonisation. Species for which agricultural land is suitable  
596 could see increases in area of habitat as cropland and pastureland expand, or as pastureland is  
597 converted into cropland.

598 *Projecting changes in habitat extent under alternative scenarios*

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

602 **References**

603 Automatic citation updates are disabled. To see the bibliography, click Refresh in the Zotero tab.

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