A mid-term analysis of progress toward international biodiversity targets


In 2010, the international community, under the auspices of the Convention on Biological Diversity, agreed on 20 biodiversity-related “Aichi Targets” to be achieved within a decade. We provide a comprehensive mid-term assessment of progress toward these global targets using 55 indicator data sets. We projected indicator trends to 2020 using an adaptive statistical framework that incorporated the specific properties of individual time series. On current trajectories, results suggest that despite accelerating policy and management responses to the biodiversity crisis, the impacts of these efforts are unlikely to be reflected in improved trends in the state of biodiversity by 2020. We highlight areas of societal endeavor requiring additional efforts to achieve the Aichi Targets, and provide a baseline against which to assess future progress.

Continued degradation of the natural world and the goods and services it provides to humankind has led to the adoption of numerous international agreements aimed at halting the decline of biodiversity and ecosystem services [e.g., (7)]. The Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) in 2002 committed to a significant reduction in the rate of biodiversity loss by 2010 (2), which, despite some local successes [e.g., (3)], did not lead to a reduction in the overall rate of decline (4, 5). Renewed commitments were made in the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011–2020 (6), which calls for effective and urgent action this decade. These goals are supported by 20 “Aichi Biodiversity Targets” to be met by 2020 at the latest (table SI), covering “pressures” on, “states of,” and “benefits” from biodiversity and “responses” to the biodiversity crisis [sensu (4, 7; table SI)]. Objectively quantifying progress toward these international environmental commitments is critical for assessing their impact and efficacy, yet as the midpoint of this 10-year period approaches, progress toward the Aichi Targets has not been quantitatively evaluated.

To address this gap, we assembled a broad suite of indicator variables to estimate historical trends and project to 2020 (8). Building on the CBD’s indicative list (9), we performed a data scoring of more than 160 potential indicators and reviewed them against five criteria for inclusion, namely: (i) high relevance to a particular Aichi Target and a clear link to the status of biodiversity; (ii) scientific or institutional credibility; (iii) a time series ending after 2010; where unavailable but indicator fills a sizable gap, data ending as near to 2010 as possible; (iv) at least five annual data points in the time series; and (v) broad geographic (preferably global) coverage. Of the 163 potential indicators, 55 met these criteria (table SI), almost double the number used to test whether the 2010 target had been met (4). In total, we assembled indicators for 16 of the 20 targets (table SI), and progress to two more was measurable.

We fitted models to estimate underlying trends using an analysis framework adaptive to the highly variable statistical properties of the indicators. Dynamic linear models (10) were fitted to high-noise time series, while parametric multimodel averaging (11) was used for those with low noise. We projected model estimates and confidence intervals to 2020 to estimate trajectories and rates of change for each indicator (Fig. 1).

As most targets lack explicitly quantifiable definitions of “success” for 2020 (and those that have definitions for some components lack them for others), it was not generally possible to measure progress in terms of distance to a defined end point. Therefore, we assigned indicators as states, pressures, benefits, or responses and compared projected values in 2020 against modeled 2010 values (underlying trend estimates) for all indicators, while additionally measuring absolute progress where possible. Societal responses to the biodiversity crisis generally showed improvements, with 21 of 33 response indicators (64%) projected to increase significantly by 2020, and most of the remainder having an increasing mean trend. Those increasing significantly included eight of nine indicators of protected area coverage, representativeness, and management (target 11) and all four indicators of sustainable management (fisheries and forest certification, organic farming, and conservation agriculture; targets 6 and 7), along with two of three indicators for research and data provision (Global Biodiversity Information Facility records, research into economic valuation of biodiversity; targets 2 and 19) and two of three indicators of biodiversity awareness (percentage of people who

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have heard of biodiversity, percentage correctly defining biodiversity; target 1). However, none of the nine indicators of financial resources showed a significant increase by 2020 (though seven did show positive mean trends), nor did national legislation to prevent or control invasive species.

In contrast, for the underlying state of biodiversity and the pressures upon it, our projections indicate no significant improvement or a worsening situation by 2020, relative to 2010. Five of seven pressure indicators (71%) showed significant increases (a worsening situation), including those measuring consumption (eco-

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**Fig. 1. Examples of model fits and projections for indicator data.** Panels show selected pressure (A and B), state (C and D), benefit (E and F), and response (G and H) indicator data (black dots). Model fits (black and gray lines) and 95% confidence intervals (dark and light shading) indicate, respectively, significant and non-significant differences between 2010 (horizontal dashed line) and 2020 (colored square) estimates. (A) and (B) have been truncated at 1950 for visualization purposes. For fits to all 55 indicator time series, see fig. S54.

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1United Nations Environment Programme World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC), 219 Huntington Road, Cambridge CB3 0DL, UK. 2Department of Biology, Dalhousie University, 1355 Oxford Street, Halifax, NS B3H 4R2, Canada. 3Department of Biology, Queen’s University, Kingston, ON K7L 3N6, Canada. 4Ocean Sciences Division, Bedford Institute of Oceanography, Post Office Box 1006, Dartmouth, NS B2Y 4A2, Canada. 5Centre for Microeconomics, Evolution and Climate, Natural History Museum, Copenhagen, DK-2100, Denmark. 6BioLife International, Wellbrook Court, Cambridge CB3 DNA, UK. 7ESE Laboratory, Université Paris-Sud, UMR 8799, CNRS–Université Paris-Sud, 91405 Orsay, France. 8PBL Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency, Post Office Box 303, 3720 AH, Bilthoven, Netherlands. 9Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations, Viale delle Terme di Caracalla, 00153 Rome, Italy. 10Department of Earth Sciences–Geochemistry, Faculty of Geosciences, Utrecht University, Post Office Box 80021, 3508 TA Utrecht, Netherlands. 11Fisheries Centre, The University of British Columbia, 2202 Main Mall, Vancouver, BC V6T 1Z4, Canada. 12Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity, 413, Saint Jacques Street, Suite 800, Montreal, QC H2Y 1N3, Canada. 13Global Footprint Network, 7-9 Chemical de Baillet, 1219 Geneva, Switzerland. 14Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2 rue André-Pascal, 75775 Paris Cedex 16, France. 15RSPB Centre for Conservation Science The Lodge, Sandy, Bedfordshire SG19 2DL, UK. 16Marine Stewardship Council, 1-3 Snow Hill, London EC1A 2HD, UK. 17The Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF) Secretariat Universitetsparken 15, 2100 Copenhagen, Denmark. 18Center for Limnology, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 680 North Park Street, Madison, WI 53706s, USA. 19Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) International, Charles-de-Gaulle Strasse 5, 53113 Bonn, Germany. 20DIVERSITAS, 57 rue Cuvier–CP 41, 75231 Paris Cedex 05, France. 21University of Queensland, Diamantina National Park via Winton, QLD 4775, Australia. 22Zoological Society of London, Regent’s Park, 2 W1 4RF, UK. 23Union for Ethical BioTrade, De Ruyterkade 6, 1013 AA, Amsterdam, Netherlands. 24German Centre for Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv) Halle-Jena-Leipzig, Deutscher Platz 2e, 04109 Leipzig, Germany. 25Institute of Biology, Martin Luther University Halle-Wittenberg, Am Kirchtor 1, 06108 Halle (Saale), Germany. 26Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species Secretariat, Maison internationale de l’environnement, 11-13 Chemin des Anémones, 1218 Châtelaine, Geneva, Switzerland. 27Marine Spatial Ecology Lab, School of Biological Sciences, University of Queensland, St. Lucia Brisbane, Qld 4072, Australia. 28The International Union for Conservation of Nature Species Survival Commission (IUCN SSC) Invasive Species Specialist Group, University of Auckland, Tamaki Campus, Auckland, New Zealand. 29Data for the Global Environment Facility. 30Department of Biology and Biotechnologies, Sapienza–Università di Roma, Via dell’ Università 32, 00185 Rome, Italy. 31School of Life Sciences, University of Sussex, Brighton BN1 9QJ, UK. 32Environment Agency Austria, Spittelauer Lände 5, 1090 Vienna, Austria. 33University of Vienna, Department of Botany and Biodiversity Research, Division of Conservation Biology, Vegetation Ecology and Landscape Ecology, Renweg 14, 1030 Vienna, Austria. 34Microsoft Research, Computational Science Laboratory, 21 Station Road, Cambridge, CB2 1FB, UK. 35Corresponding author. E-mail: derek.tittonen@unep-wcmc.org
possibility is that there are substantial time lags before outcomes are detectable. That is, it may take years or decades before these increased responses translate to positive changes in the state of biodiversity or reduced pressures (14). Ecological theory and restoration ecology provide tangible evidence that supports this assertion (15–17), and a notable escalation of responses as implied here may signal improved progress toward targets over longer time scales; indeed, state, benefit, and pressure indicators already implicitly reflect prior conservation action. Alternatively, responses may be insufficient or inappropriate relative to pressures and fail to overcome the growing impacts of drivers that lead to biodiversity loss.

It is important to recognize that statistical extrapolations make the assumption of underlying processes remaining constant into the future, which may or may not hold, and should be viewed with this assumption clearly in mind. Our analyses are also inevitably incomplete. A global analysis will not reflect finer-scale spatial variation and local to regional improvements [e.g., (3, 18)], and the taxonomic coverage is limited. Locating data that enable quantification of progress toward targets at a global scale is challenging (19, 20), and some indicators are less well aligned with targets, leading to variable levels of coverage (fig. S53 and tables S3 and S4) (21). Indicators also have differing spatial, temporal, and/or taxonomic coverage (table S1), and for some individual target components (e.g., harmful subsidies for target 3, plant genetic resources for target 13), we were unable to locate indicators satisfying our criteria (table S3). Moreover, we could not locate any indicators meeting the criteria above to measure progress toward targets 15 (ecosystem resilience and contribution of biodiversity to carbon stocks) and 18 (integration of traditional knowledge and effective participation of indigenous and local communities). Investment in the development of novel indicators for unassessed targets or components remains an urgent priority, as does the development of indicators for "benefits" from ecosystems (7), of which we could only locate three. Novel data collection, data-sharing platforms, and support to developing nations in analytical capacities and training may help contribute to these goals, as may contemporary approaches to assessing the impact of interventions (22).

Despite these limitations, the rapid development of online databases, indicators, and indicator partnerships continues to improve our

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### Table 1: Aggregated Trends in Pressures, States, Benefits, and Responses across All Indicators and Aichi Targets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Pressures</th>
<th>States</th>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Improving</td>
<td>Improving</td>
<td>Improving</td>
<td>Improving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Improving</td>
<td>Improving</td>
<td>Improving</td>
<td>Improving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>Improving</td>
<td>Improving</td>
<td>Improving</td>
<td>Improving</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### Figure 2: Aggregated trends in pressures, states, benefits, and responses across all indicators and Aichi Targets.

Lines represent significant (continuous) or nonsignificant (dotted) trends relative to 2010 modeled value (horizontal dotted black line). Indicators with very flat linear trends may be superimposed (e.g., two benefit indicators). An increase in states, benefits, and responses, or a decrease in pressures represents progress toward the targets. Some indicator trends (e.g., extinction rates) have been inverted to conform to this paradigm. Trends have been truncated before 2000 for visualization purposes.

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### Figure 3: Comparison between mean annual rates of change in indicators pre- and post-2010.

Filled squares indicate estimated mean annual rate of change of indicator between 2001 (or earliest year if subsequent) and 2010. End points of arrows indicate estimated mean annual rate of change between 2011 and 2020. Indicators to the right of the vertical dashed line are increasing annually, whereas those to the left are decreasing. If arrows point toward the dashed line, then rate of change is slowing; conversely, if they point away, it is accelerating. Black asterisks indicate significant slopes for post-2010 mean rates of change, based on bootstrapped linear model fits. Dashed arrow indicates value beyond x-axis limit. Two state indicators for target 1 have been excluded because they only have a single year before 2010. For identification of each indicator, see table S8.
ability to quantify progress toward targets (23). The benefits of maintaining biodiversity are well known (24). Our results provide a baseline against which to measure progress toward this objective in 2020 and suggest that efforts need to be redoubled to positively affect trajectories of change and enable global biodiversity goals to be met by the end of the current decade.

REFERENCES AND NOTES
5. SCBD, “Global Biodiversity Outlook 3” (Montreal, 2010).
8. See supplementary materials on Science Online.
14. Furthermore, the ability of statistical models to react to recent changes in indicator trends will vary depending on, among other things, the length of the time series, the noise in the data, and the magnitude of departure from the previous trend.
21. It is also possible that the response, pressure, and state indicator framework is not tracking factors that are causally linked (7), use of this framework does not imply joined-up indicators.

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CELL-FREE ASSAYS
Spatial organization of cytokinesis signaling reconstituted in a cell-free system

Phuong A. Nguyen,1,2* Aaron C. Groen,1,2* Martin Loose,1 Keisuke Ishihara,1,2 Martin Wühr1 Christine M. Field,1,2† Timothy J. Mitchison1,2†

During animal cell division, the cleavage furrow is positioned by microtubules that signal to the actin cortex at the cell midplane. We developed a cell-free system to recapitulate cytokinesis signaling using cytoplasmic extract from Xenopus eggs. Microtubules grew out as asters from artificial centrosomes and met to organize antiparallel overlap zones. These zones blocked the interpenetration of neighboring asters and recruited cytokinesis midzone proteins, including the chromosomal passenger complex (CPC) and centralspindlin. The CPC was translocated to overlap zones, which required two motor proteins, Kif4A and a Kif20A paralog. Using supported lipid bilayers to mimic the plasma membrane, we observed the recruitment of cleavage furrow markers, including an active RhoA reporter, at microtubule overlaps. This system opens further approaches to understanding the biophysics of cytokinesis signaling.

etomyosin-based cleavage furrows in animal cells are positioned by signals emanating from microtubule astromeres formed shortly after anaphase onset (7). In typical somatic cells, the signaling complexes centralspindlin and the chromosomal passenger complex (CPC) accumulate at the center of the midzone (or central spindle), which forms in the space previously occupied by the mitotic spindle (2). It is unclear how the microtubules that position furrows are born in much larger egg cells and how they signal to the cortex. We addressed these questions by developing a cell-free system to reconstitute the spatial signaling that is characteristic of cytokinesis in a large egg cell.

To reconstitute cytokinesis events, uninduced egg cytoplasm with intact actin (3), containing fluorescent probes and Aurora kinase A (AurkA)–based artificial centrosomes beads (4), was treated with Cytochalasin D to mimic fertilization and immediately spread between two coverslips for imaging (fig. S1A). As the cell cycle progressed from metaphase to interphase (5), large microtubule asters grew out rapidly from each AurkA bead. Where the expanding edges of two neighboring asters met, antiparallel microtubule bundles formed in a boundary zone that we term the aster-aster interaction zone (AAIZ) (Fig. 1A to C, fig. S1, and movie S1). In somatic cells, the CPC and centralspindlin complexes are recruited to the midplane in anaphase, where they specify the division plane by activating the small GTPase RhoA (2). We imaged endogenous complexes by adding labeled antibodies, and for the CPC we confirmed localization with a green fluorescent protein (GFP)–tagged DasrA subunit (5). CPC and the Kif23 subunit of centralspindlin were recruited to the AAIZ in a 5- to 15-μm-wide line bisecting the line between two AurkA beads (Fig. 1B and C, and fig. S1). The AAIZ was wider than a somatic cell midzone and was hundreds of microns long. To evaluate its physiological relevance, we imaged the same proteins in Xenopus zygotes fixed between mitosis and cytokinesis, which takes place at interphase in early embryonic cells (Fig. 1D) (6). The morphology of the midplane in zygotes, as defined by microtubule morphology and CPC/centralspindlin localization, was strikingly similar to that of the AAIZ in extracts (Fig. 1A to C).

To measure microtubule orientation at the AAIZ we tracked GFP-tagged end-binding protein 1 (EB1), which binds to growing microtubule plus ends (Fig. 1E, fig. S2, and movie S2) (7). Microtubules grew outward radially within each aster. At the AAIZ, EB1 comets from both directions entered antiparallel bundles, where they usually disappeared (Fig. 1E). We quantified the degree of interpenetration by categorizing EB1 comets based on their direction (fig. S3) (5). The AAIZ was characterized by a sharp change in directionality over ~20 μm, indicating a localized block to interpenetration between the asters (Fig. 1F).

Kinase activity of the Aurora kinase B (AurkB) subunit of the CPC is required to establish midzone morphology and for furrow ingress (8). We confirmed this in Xenopus eggs (fig. S4) (5). AurkB inhibition blocked recruitment of the CPC in our cell-free system (Fig. 1E) and caused much deeper interpenetration of microtubules (Fig. 1, E and F, and movie S8). Thus, AurkB activity was required to create a sharp boundary between asters.

CPC is proposed to be transported to the center of midzones along microtubules by a kinesin molecular motor (9), but transport has not been observed directly. Five plus-end–directed kinesins involved in cell division are candidates for CPC transport (10): Kif4A, Kif10 (also called CenpE),
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