

Moving from biodiversity offsets to a target-based approach for ecological compensation

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1 **Moving from biodiversity offsets to a target-based approach for ecological compensation**

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54 **ABSTRACT**

55 Loss of habitats or ecosystems arising from development projects (e.g. infrastructure, resource
56 extraction, urban expansion) are frequently addressed through biodiversity offsetting. As currently
57 implemented, offsetting typically requires an outcome of ‘no net loss’ of biodiversity, but only
58 relative to a baseline trajectory of biodiversity decline. This type of ‘relative’ no net loss entrenches
59 ongoing biodiversity loss, and is misaligned with biodiversity targets that require ‘absolute’ no net
60 loss or ‘net gain’. Here, we review the limitations of biodiversity offsetting, and in response, propose
61 a new framework for compensating for biodiversity losses from development in a way that is aligned
62 explicitly with jurisdictional biodiversity targets. In the framework, targets for particular biodiversity
63 features are achieved via one of three pathways: Net Gain, No Net Loss, or (rarely) Managed Net
64 Loss. We outline how to set the type (‘Maintenance’ or ‘Improvement’) and amount of ecological
65 compensation that is appropriate for proportionately contributing to the achievement of different
66 targets. This framework advances ecological compensation beyond a reactive, ad-hoc response, to
67 ensuring alignment between actions addressing residual biodiversity losses and achievement of
68 overarching targets for biodiversity conservation.

69 INTRODUCTION

70 The 196 Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) are currently setting ambitious post-
71 2020 biodiversity targets (Mace et al., 2018; Visconti et al., 2019). Yet, despite widespread
72 recognition of the need to slow and ultimately halt biodiversity loss, transformation of the natural
73 world for infrastructure, industry, commercial agriculture, urbanisation and resource extraction
74 (hereafter, ‘development’) continues to drive declines (IPBES, 2019). Ceasing all such transformation
75 is not feasible in the face of desirable development imperatives (Griggs et al., 2013; United Nations,
76 2018). Governments, developers and civil society therefore need tools for reconciling development
77 and conservation to reduce the rate of biodiversity loss.

78 The mitigation hierarchy is an approach for responding to biodiversity losses arising from
79 development. It has been embedded into numerous government, lender and corporate policies
80 (BBOP, 2012; Gardner et al., 2013; IFC, 2012; IUCN, 2018a; Rainey et al., 2014). Proponents of
81 development projects—where these are mandated by policy (‘regulated sectors’)—are required to
82 reduce adverse biodiversity outcomes through sequentially following four steps. Only after
83 completing avoidance, and then restoration/rehabilitation of disturbed areas onsite, should the
84 fourth step be taken – compensating for any residual losses through biodiversity offsetting. When
85 applied as the final step of the mitigation hierarchy, biodiversity offsets are typically intended to
86 achieve an outcome in which there is (at least) ‘no net loss’ of the impacted biodiversity due to a
87 particular project (BBOP, 2012; Bull, Gordon, Watson, & Maron, 2016; IUCN, 2016).

88 Biodiversity offsetting, however, is almost never designed to align with the achievement of national
89 or sub-national (‘jurisdictional’) biodiversity targets that aim to halt species and ecosystem decline,
90 or achieve biodiversity recovery. In large part, this is because no net loss of biodiversity at the level
91 of individual development projects can mean something quite different to no net loss at the
92 jurisdictional level (Maron, Brownlie, et al., 2018). When framed in relation to a jurisdictional
93 biodiversity target, no net loss implies that the amount of a particular biodiversity feature (e.g.

94 forest) should not fall below what we have now; in other words, it means no net loss relative to a
95 'fixed reference scenario' (Maron, Brownlie, et al., 2018). Under such a scenario, any lost forest (for
96 example) would need to be replaced to achieve absolute no net loss – that is, to maintain the
97 amount of forest at its current level (Figure 1).

98 This is rarely the intended meaning of no net loss in offset policies which guide compensation for
99 residual losses at the *development project level*, not the jurisdictional level. Project-level no net loss
100 is often framed relative to a counterfactual scenario of decline, in which biodiversity is expected to
101 be lost even without the development (and its offset) (Maron, Bull, Evans, & Gordon, 2015; IUCN,
102 2016). The rationale is that the protection provided by the offset action achieves a benefit by
103 averting a loss or decline that would otherwise have occurred. Such 'averted loss' offsetting (also
104 called avoided loss or protection offsetting) is one of the two main forms of biodiversity offsetting
105 (the other being restoration). It is referenced as a key approach to offsetting in policies and
106 standards espoused by financial institutions (IFC, 2012; World Bank Group, 2016), multistakeholder
107 platforms (BBOP, 2012; IUCN, 2016) and jurisdictions (Australia, Columbia and Chile (Maron,
108 Brownlie et al., 2018)). In a global review of over 12,000 individual offsets projects, Bull and Strange
109 (2018) found that approximately 66% used averted loss offsetting, either exclusively, or in
110 combination with other measures.

111 When framed this way, even best-practice offsets result in less biodiversity over time, as protection
112 of already-existing biodiversity, which is expected to decline in the future, can be exchanged for
113 biodiversity losses at the development site(s) (Bekessy et al., 2010; Buschke, Brownlie, & Manuel,
114 2017; Maron, Brownlie, et al., 2018; Moilanen & Laitila, 2016). Across multiple projects, offsetting
115 that achieves no net loss relative to a counterfactual scenario of biodiversity decline maintains the
116 declining trend, and corresponds with a net loss at the jurisdictional level (Figure 1) (Gibbons &
117 Lindenmayer, 2007; Quétier, van Teeffelen, Pilgrim, von Hase, & ten Kate, 2015).

118

119 <Figure 1>

120

121 Relative no net loss of biodiversity at the project level does not equate with the achievement of
122 absolute no net loss at the jurisdictional level. This mismatch causes conceptual confusion and
123 ambiguity about the meaning and intention of no net loss as a policy objective. It also makes it hard
124 to assess the contribution that project-level compensatory actions (e.g. biodiversity offsetting) are
125 making to broader conservation goals, such as the achievement of jurisdictional biodiversity targets
126 (Maron, Brownlie, et al., 2018). We are aware of only one national policy that links compensatory
127 actions to the achievement of a target (limiting ecosystem loss to pre-defined thresholds) – South
128 Africa’s Draft National Biodiversity Offset Policy (Republic of South Africa, 2017). If offsetting
129 continues to occur in isolation from broader conservation imperatives, the risk is that at best,
130 offsetting will contribute minimally to conservation objectives, and at worst, will detract from
131 achieving such goals (e.g. where counterfactual-based approaches entrench ongoing declines
132 (Maron, Brownlie et al., 2018)). An overarching framework is therefore needed to align project-level
133 actions under the mitigation hierarchy, particularly of ecological compensation for residual losses,
134 with the biodiversity targets that a jurisdiction may strive to achieve.

135 Here, we propose such a framework, and review its suitability in applied conservation policy. We
136 refer throughout to ‘ecological compensation’ to distinguish our proposed approach as an
137 alternative to the narrower concept of biodiversity offsetting, which has strict rules about like-for-
138 like trades in biodiversity and aims to achieve at least no net loss relative to a counterfactual
139 scenario (BBOP, 2012; Bull et al., 2016; IUCN, 2016). We discuss the consequences of different
140 approaches to ecological compensation, and provide guidance on how, where and when the
141 framework we present could be operationalised. This framework entails several advantages over
142 current practice. First, it makes explicit the contribution of ecological compensation towards
143 meeting jurisdictional biodiversity targets. Second, it avoids the need for complex (and highly

144 uncertain) calculations of the counterfactual scenario. Third, it strengthens the focus on avoidance,
145 because it explicitly identifies instances where biodiversity losses require proportionate increases
146 through actions like restoration, which will not always be a feasible option. Fourth, it provides
147 conceptual clarity; the net outcome across impact and compensation sites for a particular project
148 would align with the desired net outcome at the jurisdictional level.

149 ***Jurisdictional-level biodiversity targets***

150 The framework we propose is general, and can apply to any biodiversity targets that describe a
151 desired state of biodiversity ('outcome-based targets') at any jurisdictional scale. Target-setting is
152 not a part of the framework, but the existence of quantifiable targets is a pre-requisite for its
153 implementation. Indeed, the targets that we refer to in this framework should be set independently
154 of, and have primacy over, policy relating to the mitigation hierarchy and compensation. This is to
155 prevent targets being designed to facilitate a particular policy approach.

156 Biodiversity targets are a familiar concept. Under the CBD Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2010-2020
157 (UN CBD, 2010), more than 160 Parties to the CBD already have targets for biodiversity conservation
158 laid out in their National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plans (a response to the 20 global Aichi
159 Targets agreed in 2010) (UNEP, 2019). However, these are often not outcomes-based targets (IUCN,
160 2018b) – a reflection of the fact that the Aichi Targets themselves are predominantly non-
161 quantifiable, and lack focus on desired outcomes (Barnes, Glew, Wyborn, & Craigie, 2018; Butchart,
162 Di Marco, & Watson, 2016).

163 As Parties to the CBD negotiate the post-2020 global biodiversity framework, there are increasing
164 calls for clear, quantifiable science-based targets for the retention and recovery of biodiversity and
165 nature (Dinerstein et al., 2019; Mace et al., 2018; Maron, Simmonds, & Watson, 2018; Visconti et al.,
166 2019; Watson & Venter, 2017). Such targets should be incorporated in national plans and actions,
167 and linked to the achievement of broader global goals (IUCN, 2018b; Mace et al., 2018). Plentiful

168 guidance on target-setting is available (Butchart et al., 2016; Carwardine, Klein, Wilson, Pressey, &
169 Possingham, 2009; Di Marco, Watson, Venter, & Possingham, 2016; Doherty et al., 2018; Maron,
170 Simmonds, et al., 2018; Maxwell et al., 2015; Watson & Venter, 2017). The framework we present
171 requires that targets are measurable, and explicitly reflect the desired state (outcome) of the
172 biodiversity feature (e.g. species population, ecosystem extent) on which the target focusses, rather
173 than a desired rate of change, or a mechanism for achieving the target. Examples of such targets
174 that already exist include the French Government’s pledge to support and maintain a population of
175 500 wolves for the years 2018 to 2023 (Republique Francaise, 2018), and ecosystem-specific
176 retention thresholds that are incorporated into South Africa’s Draft National Offset Policy (Brownlie
177 et al., 2017 (see Supporting Information 1)).

178 **RESULTS**

179 *Aligning ecological compensation with biodiversity targets*

180 In this framework, targeted conservation outcomes such as desired species populations or minimum
181 ecosystem extents are set in absolute terms at the jurisdictional level. The required trajectory
182 needed to achieve a target for a particular species, assemblage or ecosystem (hereafter,
183 ‘biodiversity feature’) depends on the level (e.g. number, amount, area) of the biodiversity feature
184 when the jurisdictional-level target for that biodiversity feature was set (Figure 2).

185

186 <Figure 2>

187

188 When a biodiversity feature is approximately at the target level ongoing ‘No Net Loss’ is required. All
189 losses of the biodiversity feature need to be balanced by proportionate gains in order to maintain
190 the biodiversity feature at the target level. It follows that when a biodiversity feature is below the

191 target level, 'Net Gain' is needed to achieve the target, whereby the biodiversity feature increases in
192 absolute terms to (at least) the point where the target is met. 'Managed Net Loss' may be
193 appropriate in exceptional circumstances when a biodiversity feature is above its target. Setting a
194 target below current levels might require that: (1) the particular biodiversity feature is very common
195 and widespread; (2) some losses at the jurisdictional level can occur without compromising the
196 ecological integrity and function of the feature (e.g. population viability, intactness); and (3)
197 continued, strictly managed drawdown to a pre-determined target level is socially acceptable.

198 Once a jurisdiction has established targets, and thus specified the required trajectory for its
199 biodiversity features, project-level actions under the mitigation hierarchy can be designed to
200 contribute to achieving these targets. The approach to compensating for residual losses at the
201 project level depends upon several factors. The *type* of compensatory action depends on whether
202 achievement of the jurisdictional biodiversity target requires Net Gain, No Net Loss, or occasionally
203 in specific situations allows for Managed Net Loss. The *amount* of compensation required for any
204 given project is guided by the amount of residual loss, how much of the affected biodiversity feature
205 remains relative to its particular target, and policy decisions regarding the share of responsibility
206 among sectors. Below, we set out each consideration.

207 ***Achieving jurisdictional outcomes – Improvement, Maintenance and Avoidance***

208 There are two broad types of ecological compensation in this framework: Maintenance and
209 Improvement. By 'Maintenance' we mean preventing a threat to ensure persistence of a biodiversity
210 feature at its *current* condition, extent or population (and conservation status), for example by
211 legally securing existing biodiversity at a compensation site. The aim of Maintenance is to prevent
212 existing biodiversity from being lost at a site in the future (i.e. avert future losses). The net result of
213 Maintenance interventions across a jurisdiction is a reduction in the biodiversity feature, because
214 the loss from development is compensated for by securing the persistence of the biodiversity
215 feature at another site(s), where it already exists.

216 This contrasts with ‘Improvement’, which involves producing a quantifiable *increase* in the
217 biodiversity feature. Improvement can take a range of forms, and result from a variety of
218 interventions such as habitat enhancement (e.g. improving condition of native vegetation) or
219 removal of pervasive pressures to allow populations to increase (e.g. invasive species control). In
220 reality, the interventions that achieve Maintenance and Improvement at a site can overlap—legally
221 securing a site and managing it at a moderate intensity might preserve that site’s condition
222 (Maintenance), but if management intensity is increased it might achieve Improvement; similarly,
223 legal protection of a degraded site might over time allow its recovery (Improvement). Generally,
224 Improvement will require complementary Maintenance as a necessary prerequisite (e.g. securing a
225 site containing the focal biodiversity feature or its habitat, with a view to improving it).

226 Enhancing biodiversity, including via Improvement compensation actions, is ultimately essential for
227 achieving jurisdictional-level No Net Loss or Net Gain—only by increasing the extent and/or
228 condition or amount of a biodiversity feature can No Net Loss (or Net Gain) be achieved under this
229 framework (Figure 3a and 3b). When carefully linked to biodiversity targets, Maintenance can be
230 used to contribute to Managed Net Loss, until such time that the target is reached, after which
231 Improvement becomes an essential response to any permitted losses (Figure 3c). Further, while
232 Maintenance alone cannot achieve No Net Loss or Net Gain at the jurisdictional level, it may be a
233 necessary transitional intervention to ultimately achieving these outcomes in the common situation
234 where a biodiversity feature is (1) below its target; and (2) experiencing rapid and ongoing loss from
235 unregulated pressures, where the mitigation hierarchy is not fully applied. In these circumstances,
236 compensation through Maintenance may be appropriate for a transitional period alongside or in
237 advance of compensation through Improvement (Figure 3d). However, for such an approach to be a
238 step towards a No Net Loss or Net Gain, transition phases with strict limits must be set (see
239 Supporting Information 1).

240

241 <Figure 3>

242

243 Because this framework explicitly links ecological compensation requirements with jurisdictional-
244 level target outcomes, it strengthens the focus on rigorously applying the earlier steps of the
245 mitigation hierarchy. Jurisdictional No Net Loss or Net Gain cannot occur without losses being
246 compensated by Improvement actions such as restoration or increases in species' populations.
247 However, for some biodiversity features, achieving such gains through actions like restoration is
248 either hampered by great uncertainty, or is simply not possible (given, for example, substantial time
249 lags) (Curran, Hellweg, & Beck, 2014; Gibbons et al., 2016; Maron et al., 2012; Moilanen, van
250 Teeffelen, Ben-Haim, & Ferrier, 2009; Pilgrim et al., 2013). This reality limits considerably the types
251 of biodiversity features for which No Net Loss or Net Gain are feasible. Losses of irreplaceable
252 biodiversity features simply cannot be managed through a compensation approach, unless the
253 jurisdictional target involves Managed Net Loss. If an outcome of further (managed net) loss is
254 unacceptable, the only option is more rigorously to apply the earlier steps in the mitigation
255 hierarchy, and avoid losses entirely.

256 ***The amount of compensation required for a given loss***

257 This target-based framework no longer depends upon the complex and often counterintuitive
258 process of defining dynamic counterfactual scenarios to establish what type of action, and how
259 much, is required to compensate for a given loss (as offsetting does). This is because instead of a
260 dynamic counterfactual scenario, a reference point fixed at a particular level—the target—is used.
261 The *amount* of compensation required for any given project is determined by both how much
262 residual loss a particular biodiversity feature experiences as a result of a development project, and
263 the pathway (e.g. No Net Loss) required to achieve a target, along with several additional
264 considerations (outlined below) that are factored into the calculation of a compensation ratio. The

265 compensation ratios (sometimes called a ‘multiplier’) detailed here only need to be established
266 once—at the inception of a compensation scheme—and should be applied consistently to all
267 projects.

268 The compensation ratio sets the amount of Improvement or Maintenance required per unit of
269 residual loss to contribute to the achievement of a target, as depicted in Figure 3. The first step in
270 calculating the compensation ratio is to estimate how much of the affected biodiversity feature (x)
271 exists relative to its target (at time $t = 0$, when the target, B , was set). The current amount of x
272 comprises two parts: how much of what exists is already considered *effectively* protected from
273 adverse impacts (e.g., fully resourced protected areas) or planned to be so protected ($x_p(0)$); and
274 how much of what exists could still conceivably be lost (including because of development projects)
275 ($x_a(0)$). Places identified as being under effective protection (x_p) are not available to be used for
276 compensation.

277 Where No Net Loss or Net Gain is needed to achieve a target, the amount of compensation (gain via
278 Improvement) required for a given unit of loss to a particular biodiversity feature is:

279 [Equation 1]

$$280 \quad \textit{Compensation ratio (Improvement)} = \frac{(B - x_p(0))}{x_a(0)}$$

281

282 Where Managed Net Loss is appropriate, the amount of compensation (securing existing biodiversity
283 via Maintenance) required for a given unit of loss to a particular biodiversity feature is:

284 [Equation 2]

$$285 \quad \textit{Compensation ratio (Maintenance)} = \left(\frac{B - x_p(0)}{x(0) - B} \right)$$

286

287 For the transitional approach (Figure 3d), Equation 2 is used to set Maintenance requirements to
288 ensure that an interim target (threshold) of B_I is not breached, before switching to Improvement
289 using Equation 1 to achieve the desired target. More details on calculating the Improvement and
290 Maintenance compensation ratios (including for transitional approach) are provided in Supporting
291 Information 1 and Supporting Information 2.

292 To exemplify these ratios, compensation for a project-level loss of 100 ha of habitat, consistent with
293 Net Gain linked to a target of doubling the currently-available habitat for a species, requires an
294 Improvement ratio of 2:1. This is based on assumptions that none of the biodiversity feature is
295 currently protected, and all adverse impacts to this biodiversity feature are regulated (i.e. follow the
296 mitigation hierarchy). Here, a ratio 2:1 requires that 200 ha of 'new' equivalent habitat must be
297 successfully created (and maintained) to compensate for the loss. Similarly, Managed Net Loss in
298 which 90% of a remaining ecosystem is to be retained would require a Maintenance ratio of 9:1,
299 wherein nine times the area of residual loss is secured and retained into the future. Again, this
300 assumes no current protection of the ecosystem, and no unregulated losses. If, say, half the
301 remaining ecosystem was already effectively protected, the ratio would be 4:1.

302 These compensation ratios can vary with policy settings. For example, the ratios presented above
303 are based on a proportionate contribution towards the achievement of the target. In other words, a
304 unit of loss caused by a regulated sector requires the same amount of compensation as would a unit
305 of unregulated loss (the liability for which accrues, in effect, to the jurisdictional government) in
306 order to progress toward the target. However, in some instances a jurisdiction may require sectors
307 that are regulated to contribute disproportionately towards a target's achievement. For example,
308 the jurisdiction may require that some sectors make additional contributions towards a biodiversity
309 target, beyond just compensating for their own impacts. Alternatively, the government may
310 shoulder some of the responsibility for compensation to limit the requirements on certain sectors.
311 Government decisions about proportionate or disproportionate responsibility and policy scope

312 (which sectors or type of impact are regulated) can affect both compensation ratios for regulated
313 sectors *and* the amount of responsibility that falls on governments to address losses that are
314 contrary to the required trajectory needed to achieve target commitments. Therefore, they must be
315 made and factored in at the point of policy development when ratios are calculated (i.e. prior to the
316 policy's implementation) (Supporting Information 2). This allows for transparency and clarity about
317 which actor must do what action, how much of it, and why, to compensate for residual impacts in
318 line with meeting desired targets.

319 Time lags in and uncertainty about achievement of compensatory outcomes are also often dealt
320 with by adjusting ratios. These factors can be incorporated in this approach by increasing the ratios
321 as appropriate (Bull, Lloyd, & Strange, 2017; Laitila, Moilanen, & Pouzols, 2014; Moilanen & Kotiaho,
322 2018). This particularly applies to Improvement, where the unadjusted ratio assumes full and certain
323 compensation instantly. The compensation ratio for Improvement thus gives the *minimum*
324 compensation required for a particular unit of loss (to contribute to achievement of the target), and
325 would need to be increased accordingly to account for time lags and uncertainties (e.g. restoration
326 not being fully successful (Maron et al., 2012; Moilanen et al., 2009)).

327 ***Contrast with counterfactual-based offsetting***

328 Both target-based ecological compensation, as described in this framework, and counterfactual-
329 based offsetting, require strict adherence to the mitigation hierarchy, quantification of residual
330 losses, and determination of compensatory requirements for these losses. The fundamental
331 difference lies in *how* the compensation required for a particular biodiversity feature is calculated—
332 now based on the overall jurisdictional biodiversity target and on policy choices for how to achieve
333 it, rather than a project-specific assessment underpinned by complex counterfactual scenarios. This,
334 and other differences, are summarised in Table 1. We note that some jurisdictions may lack the
335 enabling environment to (1) develop and implement compensatory policy; and (2) determine and
336 enact either targets for biodiversity conservation, or mechanisms for their achievement. In

337 circumstances such as these, counterfactual-based offsetting may be more appropriate, although
338 this should be considered a temporary solution given its inherent propensity for the uncapped
339 drawdown of biodiversity. As long as appropriate, scientifically-robust biodiversity targets can be set,
340 we propose that a move toward a target-based approach is desirable.

341

342 <Table 1>

343

344 **DISCUSSION**

345 While in its totality, target-based ecological compensation represents a novel alternative to the
346 prevailing biodiversity offsetting paradigm, its component parts are familiar, with most aspects of
347 existing standards remaining applicable (BBOP, 2012; Gardner et al., 2013; Gelcich, Vargas, Carreras,
348 Castilla, & Donlan, 2017; IUCN, 2016). A target-based system involves changes only to the final step
349 of the well-established mitigation hierarchy, primarily relating to the sizing of compensatory
350 requirements. The on-ground actions (improving or maintaining biodiversity in a particular place) are
351 no different to those in current offsetting practice, and are subject to the same challenges that
352 affect these, and indeed most, applied conservation activities. Biodiversity targets are already
353 central in international and jurisdictional policy. Target-based ecological compensation simply helps
354 to connect project-level responses to these broad biodiversity targets to achieve desirable outcomes
355 for stakeholders and biodiversity. It should be implemented synergistically with other conservation
356 and sustainable development considerations – trading up, landscape-level planning, and impacts to
357 people (see Supporting Information 3).

358 A shift to the approach we propose carries risks. First, changing existing regulations, which
359 (currently) promote averted loss offsetting, may result in sub-optimal biodiversity outcomes if the
360 biggest gains (in the short-term) can be made by protecting highly-threatened biodiversity from

361 unmanaged pressures. Our framework deals with this by incorporating a ‘phased approach’ (see
362 above; Supporting Information 1). Second, having outcomes-based targets places a level of
363 accountability on those who set the target, and those who are required to contribute to its
364 achievement. This may encourage the setting of ‘easy’ or unambitious targets, which may lead to
365 small compensatory requirements. This underscores the need for science-based targets that are
366 established independently of the design of the compensatory scheme. As long as such targets exist,
367 the simplicity of calculating compensatory requirements and the transparency of the contribution
368 this makes to a specific goal, lends itself to higher certainty for all stakeholders, and more
369 straightforward regulatory monitoring and compliance auditing.

370 Operationalising target-based ecological compensation can draw on lessons from other policy
371 frameworks. For example, REDD+ is a mechanism under the UNFCCC where local forest protection
372 contributes to achieving broader goals (carbon emissions targets). Challenges have been identified
373 regarding multi-level governance, relating to accounting (e.g. carbon crediting, incentives) and
374 implementation (e.g. decision-making) (Cortez et al., 2010; Ravikumar et al., 2015). This has
375 prompted the development of implementation frameworks (e.g. ‘nested’ approach proposed by
376 Cortez et al. 2010), from which a key lesson is that the achievement of national targets is reliant on
377 actors operating at multiple scales, thus necessitating protocols for their engagement, including in
378 decision-making and benefit sharing. In light of the REDD+ experience, coordination among actors,
379 and especially those undertaking projects ‘on the ground’, to contribute to the achievement of
380 jurisdictional biodiversity targets, will be crucial for successful implementation of target-based
381 ecological compensation.

382 In Brazil, requirements for the protection of a minimum proportion of native vegetation on private
383 properties (legal reserves under the ‘Forest Code’) aim to help achieve bioregional vegetation
384 retention targets. Brazil’s overall approach has the benefit of transparency in desired outcomes, with
385 mechanisms designed explicitly to achieve it (Metzger et al., 2019). However, criticism of its

386 restrictiveness for business and landholders have led to relaxations of its requirements over time
387 (e.g. amnesty for illegal deforestation on small properties (Soares-Filho et al., 2014)), and even calls
388 for it to be extinguished (Metzger et al. 2019)). This underscores the risk of implementing any
389 environmental regulation that is reliant on contributions from industry and private individuals to
390 achieve a broader public-good goal (e.g. explicit environmental targets).

391 A target-based ecological compensation approach would be most effective when developed as a
392 coordinated jurisdictional policy, with both jurisdictional net outcomes set and
393 Improvement/Maintenance compensation ratios calculated at the outset. The main enabling
394 conditions (or conversely, barriers to implementation, where these conditions are lacking) for
395 embedding the approach at the jurisdictional level include basic information on the extent/amount
396 and condition of the biodiversity features that would be the focus of the policy, including how much
397 is considered to be already effectively protected, and regulatory control of at least some sectors that
398 cause biodiversity loss. Taken together, these would allow for the calculation of compensation ratios
399 and identification of valid locations for compensation. Once this (non-trivial) work is done, the
400 project-level process of identifying suitable ecological compensation would be greatly simplified.

401 In addition to government policy, most multilateral finance institutions reference 'no net loss' and
402 even 'net gain' requirements in relation to escalating biodiversity risks. For example, IFC
403 Performance Standard 6 requires no net loss where feasible in natural habitats, while net gain is
404 required for critical habitats (IFC, 2012). The simplified ratio-based protocol that is embedded in the
405 target-based approach could facilitate investment by these institutions, and, represents a desirable
406 objective for those multilateral finance institutions with mandates to engage the public sector on
407 policy reform to facilitate sustainable development.

408 Regardless of whether embedded in government policy or industry/corporate standards, this
409 framework does not imply that proponents of development projects are expected to bear the entire
410 burden of a jurisdiction achieving its particular biodiversity targets, nor that compensation alone be

411 used to achieve targets. Indeed, the share that falls on developers is a policy decision for
412 governments (See Results; Supporting Information 2). Fundamentally, it offers a systematic
413 approach to determining project-level compensation that is *consistent with the achievement of*
414 jurisdictional biodiversity targets. The more comprehensive the policy's scope—that is, the more
415 sectors that are regulated and required to compensate for losses to biodiversity arising from their
416 activities—the greater the contribution of proponents of development to meeting a jurisdiction's
417 biodiversity targets.

418 However, it will rarely, if ever, be the case that a compensatory policy is broad enough in scope to
419 capture all processes that result in the loss of biodiversity. This means that actors other than
420 proponents of development projects (e.g. governments) will need to address losses to biodiversity
421 that are beyond the scope of compensatory policy—the unregulated losses—in combination with a
422 wide suite of other complementary conservation actions that are implemented to contribute to
423 meeting targets. This ecological compensation framework involves setting out clearly the
424 expectation for both proponents of development and jurisdictional authorities as this relates to how
425 to address losses of biodiversity, whereby compensatory actions *alongside other conservation*
426 *investment* can contribute to achieving biodiversity targets.

427 Ecological compensation should always be an option of last resort. In instances where the
428 biodiversity features that are exposed to residual project losses are imperilled and irreplaceable—in
429 other words, they cannot be feasibly improved or recreated—ecological compensation is not
430 acceptable, and losses must be avoided altogether. Where residual losses *can* be reasonably
431 addressed through compensatory interventions, this target-based framework provides a pathway
432 towards more transparent and effective outcomes. It explicitly links compensatory actions to
433 broader biodiversity targets, and clarifies and simplifies the expectations on and requirements of
434 developers. In this regard, it represents a step towards the coordinated planning and integrated

435 actions that will be crucial to stem and reverse biodiversity losses in the face of ongoing
436 development pressures.

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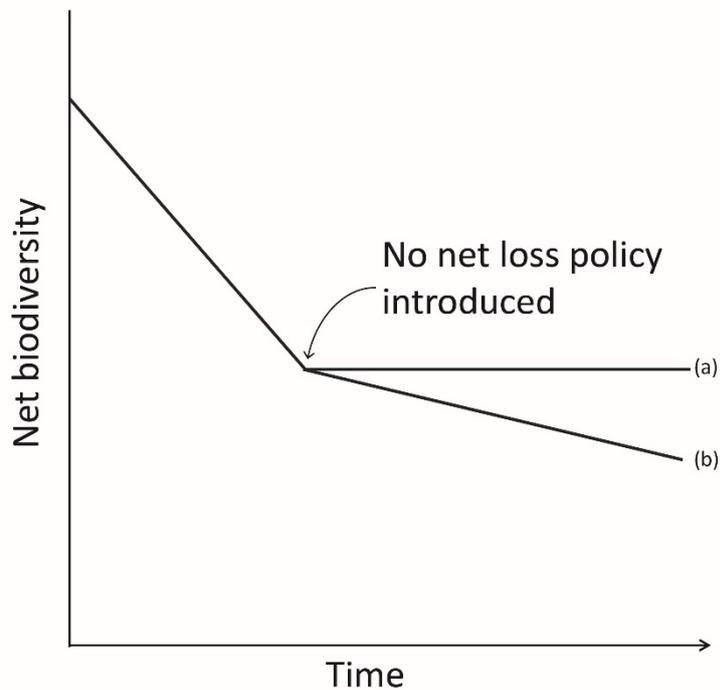
586 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

587 This framework was developed in a working group led by M.M. and J.E.M.W. All authors contributed
588 to the development of the framework. J.S.S. led the writing of the manuscript, and all authors
589 contributed to its preparation, and approved the final version for submission.

590 **Table 1.** Comparison between counterfactual-based offsetting and target-based ecological
 591 compensation.

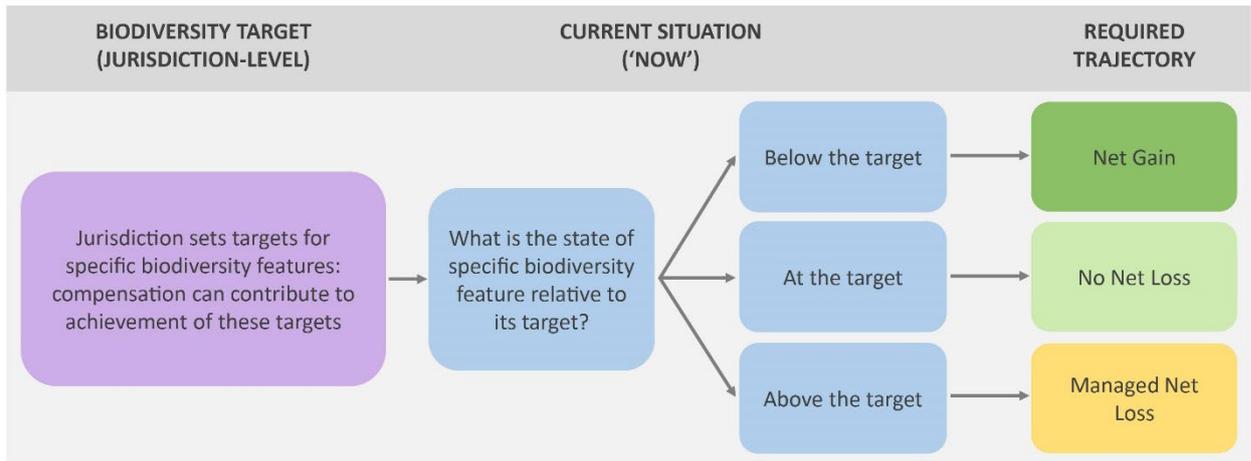
	Advantages	Risks and challenges
Counterfactual-based offsetting (aiming for no net loss relative to a counterfactual scenario)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can be implemented in the absence of any articulated conservation targets • Increases the attention on the difference made by a conservation intervention • Can be implemented for individual projects in poorly-regulated settings • Main concepts and approaches familiar to many practitioners / policy makers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outcomes are relative to a dynamic counterfactual trajectory that cannot be known in advance, only estimated • Biodiversity decline continues even though a project may achieve no net loss relative to a declining counterfactual • Constructing robust counterfactuals is conceptually complex and can be data-hungry • The type and amount of offset action required is highly sensitive to assumptions about the counterfactual trajectory • The end point of the biodiversity trajectory is implicit or unknown • Relatively easy to manipulate the counterfactual and thus undermine the net outcome
Target-based ecological compensation (aiming for net jurisdictional outcomes aligned with	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aligns outcomes of actions regulated by compensatory policy with overarching conservation objectives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires articulation of conservation targets, potentially creating incentive to ‘set bar low’ to facilitate ‘business as usual’ compensatory policy (not advocated by this framework)

specific biodiversity targets)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outcomes are explicit and relative to a fixed, known point in time • ‘No Net Loss’, ‘Net Gain’ and ‘Managed Net Loss’ have intuitive meanings • Standardises calculation of the type and amount of compensation required • Complex, dynamic counterfactual scenarios are not required 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires estimate of the difference between the target state and current state of impacted biodiversity features • When targets are at odds with actions occurring or planned outside the scope of the compensatory policy, target-based actions can be suboptimal • Target-based ecological compensation is a relatively new concept (although similar approaches exist in some jurisdictions) and will take adjustment
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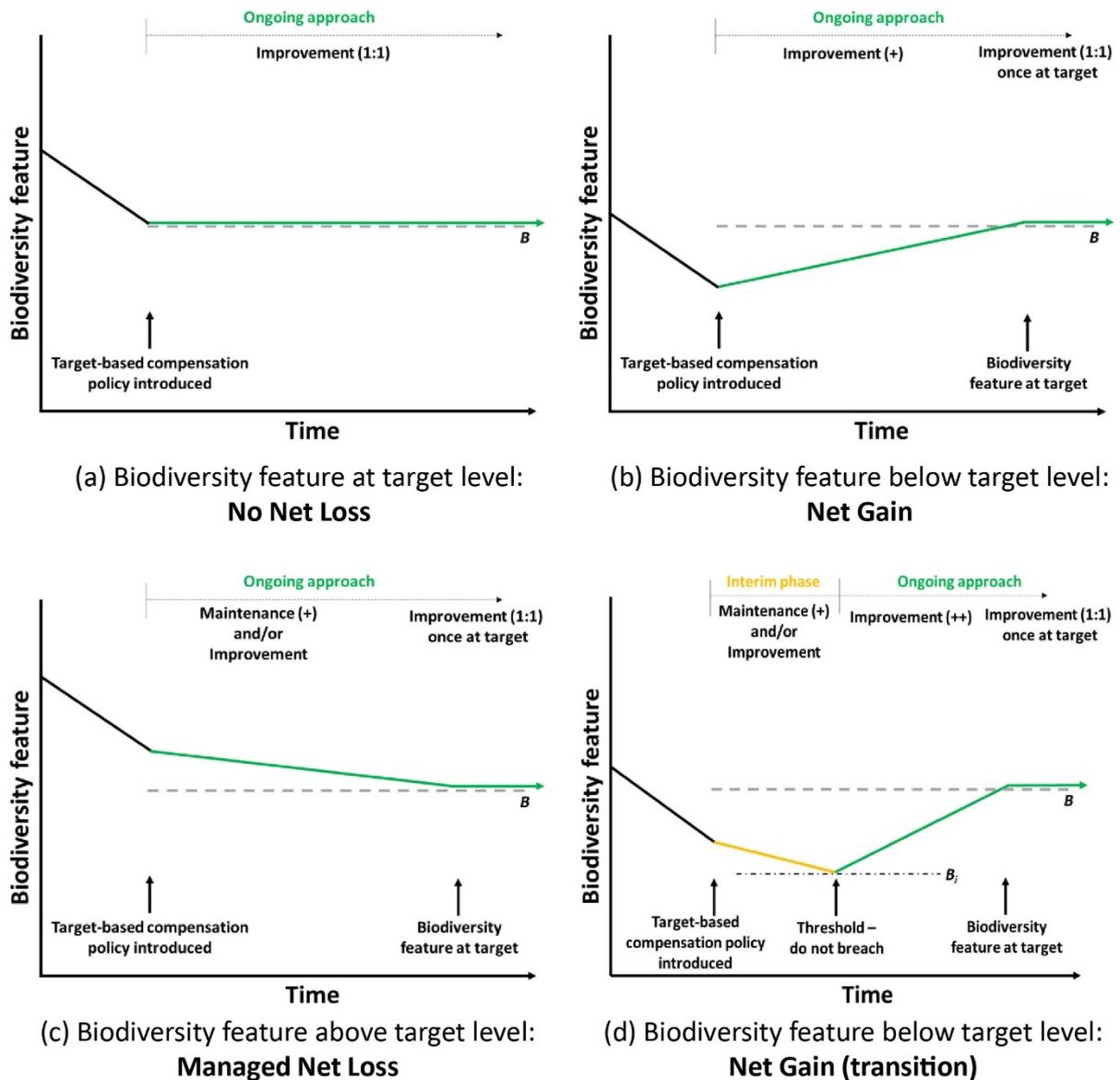
593

594 **Figure 1.** ‘No net loss’ relating to different reference scenarios. No net loss at the jurisdictional level
 595 implies that loss is stopped in absolute terms compared to a fixed reference scenario – i.e. that all
 596 biodiversity losses are addressed by gains of the same size, thus maintaining biodiversity at the same
 597 level compared to before the loss occurred (a). However, in reality, no net loss commitments
 598 frequently only require that individual projects achieve no net loss relative to a declining
 599 counterfactual, by protecting biodiversity that might otherwise be lost in the future due to
 600 unregulated impacts (‘averted loss’) (b). Such project-level no net loss results in ongoing loss of
 601 biodiversity at the jurisdictional level, albeit at a slower rate (figure adapted from Maron, Brownlie,
 602 et al. (2018)).



603

604 **Figure 2.** Aligning ecological compensation with jurisdictional biodiversity targets starts with
 605 establishing the trajectory required to achieve net target outcomes. The required trajectory depends
 606 on whether a biodiversity feature is below, at, or above its jurisdictional biodiversity target at the
 607 time the target is set (‘now’).



608

609 **Figure 3.** Illustration of the target-based ecological compensation approach for contributing to the
 610 achievement of a) No Net Loss; b) Net Gain; c) Managed Net Loss; and d) Net Gain using a
 611 transitional approach in which Maintenance actions can be undertaken for a period of time to help
 612 stem unregulated losses, before Improvement actions become the default requirement. The dashed
 613 line on each plot represents the target level (B) for the biodiversity feature. The indicative amount of
 614 Improvement and/or Maintenance (denoted by '+') depends on the difference between the level of
 615 the biodiversity feature and the target (and in the case of the transitional approach (d)), the
 616 threshold (B_i) below which the biodiversity feature cannot decline) (see Supporting Information 1).

617 Importantly, compensation for residual losses from development is one of a suite of complementary
618 measures to achieve the desired trajectory and ultimately achieve a target. At such time that the
619 target is met, maintaining the biodiversity feature at this level requires losses to be compensated for
620 by Improvement at a ratio of 1:1 (or targets could be revised towards ambitious new objectives).

Moving from biodiversity offsets to a target-based approach for ecological compensation

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Supporting Information 1

Calculating the compensation ratios in target-based ecological compensation

The calculation of an ecological compensation requirement typically factors in a ratio (also called a ‘multiplier’). The ratio is a number, usually greater than 1, which tells you how much of a biodiversity feature needs to be replaced/secured per unit of the feature lost. These ratios, in the past, have taken into account issues such as time discounting (biodiversity features produced in the future do not fully compensate for biodiversity features produced now), uncertainty, and risk of failure (Bull, Lloyd, & Strange, 2017; Laitila, Moilanen, & Pouzols, 2014; Moilanen, van Teeffelen, Ben-Haim, & Ferrier, 2009).

Here, we present ratios that accommodate the need to meet target values for various biodiversity features in the landscape – for example, a target for the number of breeding individuals of a species might be a minimum of 10000, a target for the area of suitable habitat for a species might be 5000 home ranges or more, a target for the area of a vegetation community in a region might be at least half of its original extent in good condition, which translates to a minimum area and condition score.

The formulae below assume no time lags (e.g. in the case of Improvement, new features are created instantly). Issues such as time lags will modify the ratios in ways already described (Bull et al., 2017; Laitila et al., 2014; Moilanen & Kotiaho, 2018).

Let $x(t)$ be the state of the biodiversity feature at time t where $0 \leq x(t) \leq 1$ for all t . This is made up of two parts, the part that is permanently and effectively protected $x_p(t)$, which are places that are not available for any compensatory related change, and $x_a(t)$ which is the part that could be destroyed or used for compensation at the end of the mitigation hierarchy. Hence the amount of the biodiversity feature is the sum of the protected and available parts: $x_p(t) + x_a(t) = x(t)$ at all times. Further:

Let B be the target state of the biodiversity feature and we assume this is time independent (constant).

The ratios we present below assume that (1) all sectors that cause loss of biodiversity will provide compensation; and (2) that each sector’s compensation will be a proportionate contribution to the achievement of the target (i.e. everyone compensates equally for the losses they cause). However, in some instances, not all causes of biodiversity loss will fall within the scope of policy that regulates implementation of the mitigation hierarchy. That is, the loss of biodiversity will be a function of regulated and unregulated losses. At the inception of a target-based ecological compensation policy, a government may choose to adjust compensation requirements (with implications for the calculation of compensation ratios) on sectors regulated by the mitigation hierarchy, in one of several ways:

- Compensation from regulated development is disproportionately low. The government would need to address shortfalls arising from disproportionately low compensation.
- Compensation from regulated development is disproportionately high. A disproportionately large share of achieving the target is placed on regulated sectors.

- The achievement of the target is solely the responsibility of regulated sectors, by way of the compensation they provide for the losses they cause.

Where there are unregulated losses that are going uncompensated, the requirement to address these in a way that is consistent with achieving targets accrues to other actors (e.g. the government).

We provide examples of how these policy choices affect compensation ratios, and what this means for the responsibility that falls on both regulated sectors *and* governments, in an editable spreadsheet in Supplementary Information 2.

Case 1: No Net Loss; the biodiversity feature is at the target ($x(0) = B$)

If there is no unregulated loss of the biodiversity feature, the compensation ratio (Improvement) is 1. This also applies to all cases once targets are met.

If there is unregulated loss of the biodiversity feature, then either:

- the compensation ratio (Improvement) is 1 and the liability accrues to the authority (e.g. government) to create the biodiversity feature to compensate for unregulated loss; or
- the compensation ratio is adjusted (increased) to enhance the share of the responsibility for achieving the target that falls on regulated sectors.

Case 2: Net Gain; the biodiversity feature is below the target ($x(0) < B$)

The compensation ratio (Improvement) needs to be set so that, once (hypothetically) all of the (available for development) biodiversity feature at $t = 0$ ($x_a(0)$) has been lost, we have met the target. Hence the ratio is $(B - x_p(0))/(x(0) - x_p(0)) = (B - x_p(0))/x_a(0)$, which is the inverse of the fraction of the available biodiversity feature that remains relative to the target. In the special case that none of target is effectively protected $x_p(0) = 0$ then this is $B/x_a(0)$.

For example if the target is $B = 1000$, the effectively protected amount is $x_p(0) = 200$, and the current total biodiversity feature state is $x(0) = 600$ (so the available amount of the biodiversity feature is $x_a(0) = 400$) then the compensation ratio (Improvement) is 2 assuming no unregulated losses.

The compensation ratio (Improvement) can be summarised as follows:

$$\text{Compensation ratio (Improvement)} = \left(\frac{B - x_p(0)}{x_a(0)} \right)$$

Case 3: Managed Net Loss; the biodiversity feature is above the target ($x(0) > B$)

If there is no unregulated loss of the biodiversity feature and $x_p(0) > B$, no compensation is necessary because we already have met our target in fully protected areas.

If $x_p(0) < B$, then the compensation ratio (Maintenance) is:

$$\text{Compensation ratio (Maintenance)} = \left(\frac{B - x_p(0)}{x(0) - B} \right)$$

For example if the target is $B = 1000$, the effectively protected amount is $x_p(0) = 200$, and the current total amount of the biodiversity feature is $x(0) = 1400$, then the compensation ratio (Maintenance) is 2.

If the current state of the biodiversity feature (at $t = 0$) is only marginally above the target (B), then the compensation ratio (Maintenance) will be very large, and may be unfeasibly high to practically implement. For example, should $x(0) = 10000$, and $B = 9900$ (implying a drawdown of 1% of the biodiversity feature to its target), the compensation ratio (Maintenance) will be 99:1 (assuming no unregulated losses, and no current protection). In such circumstances, a mixture of compensation provided using Maintenance only (as described above), and a separate calculation of compensation where Improvement is used according to a different (Managed Net Loss-specific Improvement) ratio calculation of $(B - x_p(0)) / x(0)$, may be an option – and if effective Improvement is unfeasible for that biodiversity feature, then avoidance is the only way in which the target can be met.

Provided below is an example of a Managed Net Loss protocol - South Africa's Draft National Biodiversity Offset Policy and provincial guidelines.

Box 1. Example of Managed Net Loss: South Africa Draft National Biodiversity Offset Policy and provincial guidelines

This policy is designed to contribute to achieving specific biodiversity targets for terrestrial ecosystems (Brownlie et al., 2017; Buschke et al., 2017). The minimum extent of each ecosystem that must be retained intact (relative to its original or historical extent) has been determined based on a scientific process (Desmet & Cowling, 2004). These ecosystem extent thresholds – in effect, targets – guide compensation requirements. The amount of compensation for residual losses from development depends on how much of the impacted ecosystem remains, relative to its historical extent and target, and how much of it is formally protected.

Where an ecosystem is below its retention threshold or target, development may not occur, other than under exceptional circumstances. For above-target ecosystems, compensation is done by protecting another place where the impacted ecosystem occurs using a Maintenance ratio scaled based on the difference between the current and desired minimum extent of the ecosystem and how much of it is protected. The net outcome in absolute terms is a Managed Net Loss – because the protected biodiversity existed at the time of the loss from the development. This target-based system carefully manages losses to avoid ecosystem extent falling below scientifically-robust thresholds. This policy avoids the 'no net loss' wording – because it is not designed to achieve no net loss.

Case 4: No Net Loss or Net Gain (transition)

A potential limitation of target-based ecological compensation is that desired No Net Loss or Net Gain outcomes (e.g. Figure 3a and Figure 3b in main review article) may not be immediately feasible in a situation of steep, continued, unaddressed and unregulated biodiversity loss. Indeed, a focus solely on Improvement actions like restoration before large-scale biodiversity loss has ceased could even be counterproductive. In such cases, a phased transition designed to ultimately achieve No Net Loss or Net Gain outcomes, that is embedded in the principles of this target-based framework, may be the most appropriate approach (Figure 3d in main review article).

The phased transition would temporarily accept a strictly controlled interim phase in which Maintenance (plus some Improvement, where feasible) interventions first aim to slow the decline of the biodiversity feature that is the focus of the compensation by securing sites where it currently exists (i.e. resembling a Managed Net Loss). Maintenance ratios in this phase would be designed not to achieve the ultimate desired target for that biodiversity feature, but to avoid breaching a pre-defined threshold limit to loss (Figure 3d in main review article). The threshold would need to be set such that enough of the focal biodiversity (extent of ecosystem; population of species) remained to allow for recovery to be feasible. Well before the threshold is reached, the approach transitions to require an Improvement ratio such that the desired No Net Loss or Net Gain outcome can be approached over time as the trajectory of the focal biodiversity feature reverses. As for all jurisdictional No Net Loss and Net Gain outcomes, this is possible only for biodiversity features that can be 'improved', such as through restoration or interventions that drive population increase. Further, the lower the initial threshold, the larger the subsequent Improvement ratio must be to achieve the target.

The phased transition to target-based compensation carries risks, but where a jurisdiction aims to, and can feasibly (in time) achieve a No Net Loss or Net Gain outcome for a particular biodiversity feature, and that same feature is in steep and ongoing decline, the short-term alternatives are few. They include: (1) immediate prevention of all actions causing biodiversity decline; (2) acceptance of less-ambitious biodiversity targets that allow for further drawdown of biodiversity, with compensatory policy designed to achieve an outcome of Managed Net Loss (i.e. capping ongoing losses at a pre-defined level); (3) use of counterfactual-based offsetting alongside unmanaged ongoing net losses; or (4) no compensation for losses at all – in other words unmanaged loss without limit – which poses serious risks for nature and people.

Calculating compensation requirements where the ultimate outcome of No Net Loss or Net Gain is achieved using a transitional approach involves a combination of Cases 2 and 3, as described above. Compensation using Maintenance (Case 3) is used first, to secure existing elements of the biodiversity feature, in the face of ongoing and severe threats. The approach switches to compensation through Improvement (Case 2), *well before* the biodiversity feature reaches a pre-determined threshold below which it is not permitted to decline. Thus, there is the intermediate threshold below which the biodiversity feature cannot decline (B_I) and the ultimate (No Net Loss or Net Gain) target (B).

Critically, determining the intermediate threshold (B_I) should be based primarily on ecological considerations: the threshold would need to be set such that enough of the focal biodiversity (e.g. extent of ecosystem; population of species) remained to allow for recovery to be feasible. However, establishing a compensation ratio (Maintenance) that can be practically implemented is another consideration here.

The following equation allows for comparison of values for the intermediate threshold (B_I), given input of different compensation ratios (Maintenance) (M_m):

$$B_I = (x_p(0) + x(0)M_m)/(1 + M_m)$$

For example, where $x_p(0) = 200$ and $x(0) = 1080$, compensation ratios (Maintenance) (M_m) of 10, 5 and 1 would mean intermediate threshold values (B_I) of 1000, 933 and 640, respectively.

This calculation provides a means by which to select the intermediate threshold (B_I) value that accounts for what can be practically implemented regarding maximum compensation ratios (Maintenance). Importantly, the lower the compensation ratio (and thus, intermediate threshold (B_I) value), the greater amount of compensation (and thus the higher the compensation ratio) will be when the approach switches to Improvement. Again, the primary consideration must always be the ecological attributes of the specific biodiversity feature, and the landscape context in which that feature occurs. In other words, the intermediate threshold (B_I), and the compensation ratio M_m must never be so low as to render recovery of the biodiversity feature, and enhancement through Improvement to achieve the ultimate No Net Loss or Net Gain target (B), unfeasible.

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Supporting Information 3

Conservation planning and sustainable development considerations in target-based ecological compensation

Trading up to higher conservation imperatives

Target-based ecological compensation is well-aligned with other key conservation imperatives and broader sustainable development considerations. For example, in this target-based framework, 'trading up' may be an option in certain circumstances. Trading up, or 'out-of-kind' trading refers to the practice of compensating for the loss of one particular biodiversity feature (at the development site) by benefiting another type of (generally greater conservation value) biodiversity feature elsewhere (Bull, Milner-Gulland, Suttle, & Singh, 2014; Moilanen & Kotiaho, 2018; Quétier & Lavorel, 2011). Compensation for residual losses affecting biodiversity features that are above their target might be directed to other biodiversity features that are below their target. For example, Improvement actions to increase the amount and/or quality of the focal (below-target) biodiversity feature might be preferred over Maintenance actions focussed on the above-target feature. However, this would mean that the development-related losses of the impacted (above-target) biodiversity feature are not compensated, and so this type of 'trading up' would only be appropriate where these losses are carefully managed and strictly limited (e.g. by other regulatory instruments) to ensure that the 'above target' biodiversity feature does not decline below its target.

Landscape level planning

There is a need to move beyond what can be achieved by site-level planning for individual projects to consider development scenarios at a larger scale and assess the integrated opportunities for achieving better economic, social, and environmental outcomes (Kiesecker & Naugle, 2017). Landscape conservation plans designed to guide application of the mitigation hierarchy (Fitzsimons, Heiner, McKenney, Sochi, & Kiesecker, 2014; Kiesecker, Copeland, Pocewicz, & McKenney, 2010) and optimal habitat protection and restoration strategies (Possingham, Bode, & Klein, 2015) are needed to maintain critical levels of habitat amount and configurations and ensure viable conservation outcomes. The establishment of outcome-based biodiversity targets, and linking ecological compensation to the achievement of these targets, lends itself well to supporting broader, strategic development planning of this nature. Further, embedding mitigation decisions into strategic plans that also consider a range of future development scenarios (Evans & Kiesecker, 2014), can benefit governments, businesses and communities by supporting more informed development decisions. Planning at this larger scale also informs strategies for long-term landscape resilience, such as ensuring functional watersheds for clean drinking water (Evans & Kiesecker, 2014) and connected habitat for species (Monteith, Hayes, Kauffman, Copeland, & Sawyer, 2018) – strategic use of target-based ecological compensation, with its explicit and transparent approach to determining compensatory requirements, has the potential to make important contributions to such endeavours.

Impacts on people

It is also crucial to recognise that biodiversity has social value, and so losses and gains in biodiversity resulting from development (and associated efforts to address biodiversity losses through the mitigation hierarchy), will affect people too—both positively and negatively (Bull, Baker, Griffiths, Jones, & Milner-Gulland, 2018; Griffiths, Bull, Baker, & Milner-Gulland, 2019; Sonter et al., 2018). People's use and non-use values associated with biodiversity therefore need to be considered when (1) setting biodiversity conservation targets; and (2) designing and implementing ecological compensation to ensure they are equitable, socially acceptable and sustainable. Because the rationale behind the type and amount of ecological compensation required using the target-based approach can be readily explained and placed in the context of broader objectives (e.g. biodiversity conservation, ecosystem service provision), stakeholder understanding and engagement with the process may be improved by this framework. Considering people in the design of ecological compensation measures is necessary for moral reasons (e.g. human rights and ethical reasons), practical reasons (e.g. gaining a social licence to operate, or because of the need to ensure involvement of local people to enable compensatory actions to be delivered), and policy or regulatory requirements (BBOP, 2009; Bidaud et al., 2018; Bull et al., 2018; IFC, 2012).

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