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1 **Challenges and solutions to biodiversity conservation in Arid lands**

2 Yuanming Zhang<sup>a,y\*</sup>, Akash Tariq<sup>a,b,y</sup>, Alice C. Hughes<sup>c,y</sup>, Deyuan Hong<sup>d</sup>, Fuwen Wei<sup>e</sup>, Hang Sun<sup>f</sup>, Jordi Sardans<sup>g,h</sup>,  
3 Josep Peñuelas<sup>g,h</sup>, Gad Perry<sup>i</sup>, Jianfang Qiao<sup>a</sup>, Alishir Kurban<sup>a,j</sup>, Xiaoxia Jia<sup>k</sup>, Domitilla Raimondo<sup>l</sup>, Borong Pan<sup>a</sup>,  
4 Weikang Yang<sup>a</sup>, Daoyuan Zhang<sup>a</sup>, Wenjun Li<sup>a</sup>, Zeeshan Ahmed<sup>a</sup>, Carl Beierkuhnlein<sup>m</sup>, Georgy Lazkov<sup>n</sup>, Kristina  
5 Toderich<sup>o</sup>, Shirin Karryeva<sup>p</sup>, Davron Dehkonomov<sup>q</sup>, Hikmat Hisoriev<sup>r</sup>, Liliya Dimeyeva<sup>s</sup>, Dmitry Milko<sup>n</sup>, Ahmedou  
6 Soule<sup>t</sup>, Malgozhata Suska-Malawska<sup>o,u</sup>, Jumamurat Saparmuradov<sup>v</sup>, Alilov Bekzod<sup>q</sup>, Paul Allin<sup>w</sup>, Sidi Dieye<sup>w</sup>,  
7 Birane Cissse<sup>x</sup>, Wondmagegne Whibesilassie<sup>i</sup>, Keping Ma<sup>d\*</sup>

8 <sup>a</sup>Xinjiang Institute of Ecology & Geography, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Xinjiang, China.

9 <sup>b</sup>Cele National Station of Observation and Research for Desert–Grassland Ecosystems, Cele, 848300, China

10 <sup>c</sup>Xishuangbanna Tropical Botanical Garden, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Yunnan, China.

11 <sup>d</sup>Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China.

12 <sup>e</sup>Institute of Zoology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China.

13 <sup>f</sup>Kunming Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Yunnan, China.

14 <sup>g</sup>CSIC, Global Ecology Unit, CREAF-CSIC-UAB, Bellaterra, Barcelona, Catalonia, Spain

15 <sup>h</sup>CREAF, Cerdanyola del Vallès, Barcelona, Catalonia, Spain.

16 <sup>i</sup>Department of Natural Resource Management, Texas Tech University, Lubbock, USA.

17 <sup>j</sup>Sino-Belgian Joint Laboratory for Geo-Information, Urumqi, 830011 China

18 <sup>k</sup>Science Technology Innovation Unit, Secretariat of the UNCCD, Bonn, Germany.

19 <sup>l</sup>South African National Biodiversity Institute, Pretoria, South Africa.

20 <sup>m</sup>Department of Biogeography, University of Bayreuth, Bayreuth, Germany.

21 <sup>n</sup>Institute of Biology, National Academy of Sciences of Kyrgyzstan, Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan.

22 <sup>o</sup>International Platform for Dryland Research and Education, University of Tottori, Tottori, Japan.

23 <sup>p</sup>CADI Project Manager, Focal Point for SBSTTA/CBD, Ashgabat, Turkmenistan.

24 <sup>q</sup>Institute of Botany, Academy Sciences of Uzbekistan, Uzbekistan.

25 <sup>r</sup>Flora and Systematic Botany Department Institute of Botany, Plant Physiology and Genetics, Tajikistan National  
26 Academy of Sciences, Dushanbe, Tajikistan.

27 <sup>s</sup>Laboratory of Geobotany, Institute of Botany & Phytointroduction, Almaty, Kazakhstan.

28 <sup>t</sup>Research Center for the Valorization of Biodiversity, Nouakchott, Mauritania.

29 <sup>u</sup>Faculty of Biology, University of Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland.

30 <sup>v</sup>Department of Environmental Protection and Hydrometeorology, Ministry of Agriculture and Environmental  
31 Protection of Turkmenistan, Ashgabat, Turkmenistan.

32 <sup>w</sup>Transfrontier Africa, Hoedspruit, South Africa.

33 <sup>x</sup>Cheikh Anta DIOP University of Dakar, Dakar, Senegal.

34 <sup>y</sup>These authors contributed equally: Yuanming Zhang, Akash Tariq, Alice C. Hughes

35 <sup>\*</sup>Corresponding authors: [zhangym@ms.xjb.ac.cn](mailto:zhangym@ms.xjb.ac.cn), [kpma@ibcas.ac.cn](mailto:kpma@ibcas.ac.cn)

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48    **Abstract**

49    The strategic goals of the United Nations and the Aichi Targets for biodiversity conservation have not been met.  
50    Instead, biodiversity has continued to rapidly decrease, especially in developing countries. Setting a new global  
51    biodiversity framework requires clarifying future priorities and strategies to bridge challenges and provide  
52    representative solutions. Hyper-arid, arid, and semi-arid lands (herein, arid lands) form about one third of the  
53    Earth's terrestrial surface. Arid lands contain unique biological and cultural diversity, and biodiversity loss in  
54    arid lands can have a disproportionate impact on the ecosystem due to low redundancy and a high risk of  
55    trophic cascades. They contain unique biological and cultural diversity and host many endemic species,  
56    including wild relatives of key crop plants. Yet extensive agriculture, unsustainable use, and global climate  
57    change are causing an irrecoverable damage to arid lands, with far-reaching consequences to the species,  
58    ground-water resources, ecosystem productivity, and ultimately the communities' dependant on these systems.  
59    However, adequate research and effective policies to protect arid land biodiversity and sustainability are  
60    lacking because a large proportion of arid areas are in developing countries, and the unique diversity in these  
61    systems is frequently overlooked. Developing new priorities for global arid lands and mechanisms to prevent  
62    unsustainable development must become part of public discourse and form the basis for conservation efforts.  
63    The current situation demands the combined efforts of researchers, practitioners, policymakers, and local  
64    communities to adopt a socio-ecological approach for achieving sustainable development (SDGs) in arid lands.  
65    Applying these initiatives globally is imperative to conserve arid lands biodiversity and the critical ecological  
66    services they provide for future generations. This perspective provides a framework for conserving  
67    biodiversity in arid lands for all stakeholders that will have a tangible impact on sustainable development,  
68    nature, and human well-being.

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84 With approximately three quarters of the Earth's land surface and two thirds of its oceans degraded or  
85 threatened, biodiversity and ecological integrity are facing unprecedented levels of threat (IPBES, 2019).  
86 Despite a series of international agreements intended to reverse this trend, neither extinction risks nor  
87 underlying stressors such as climate change have been halted, let alone reversed (Almond et al., 2020). The  
88 post-2020 global biodiversity framework will soon be launched, so we have a unique opportunity to revisit  
89 how we manage this planet and an urgent need to examine our priorities in the future. This requires careful  
90 consideration of *where* we focus future efforts and *what* further data we need to manage these systems  
91 effectively. Hyper-diverse ecosystems such as forests and coral reefs have received much attention, but other  
92 ecosystems may be overlooked, neglected, or even seen as marginal, despite their importance to a suite of  
93 unique species and human cultures including medical, cultural, food and spiritual uses (Maestre et al., 2021).  
94 For example, hyper-arid, arid and semi-arid landscapes make up nearly a third of the Earth's terrestrial surface  
95 and are home to 18.5% of the world's population (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005). Arid lands are  
96 typically defined based on the aridity index, in addition to other metrics such as the dominant vegetation type  
97 and climate. Arid lands are generally divided into three main categories; hyper arid zone (arid index <0.3):  
98 scant/no vegetation, precipitation <100 mm annually (irregular/infrequent, sometimes droughts last multiple  
99 years). Arid zones have 100-150mm moisture per year, and semi-arid 150 to 300 mm per year, dry subhumid  
100 systems are sometimes also considered as arid ecosystems (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005; Cherlet  
101 et al., 2018). Within each of these broad types of arid ecosystem are many separate ecoregions, with differing  
102 geology, and biogeography, and thus representing unique communities (Maestre et al., 2021; Fig. 1), it should  
103 also be noted that definitions do vary and there is not absolute consensus on what constitutes dryland, and any  
104 different unique ecoregions within these environments (Gaur et al., 2017; Ulrich et al., 2014). However, these  
105 landscapes are frequently perceived as barren, to the extent that they risk being used as targets for various  
106 endeavours of afforestation to offset the impacts of climate change (Dregne, 1986; Lezak, 2018). The impact of  
107 such strategies is stated to be the major threat to grassland ecosystems, which can be misguidedly converted  
108 irrespective of their native biodiversity (Scholtz & Twidwell., 2022). Insufficient research has been conducted  
109 to facilitate sustainable management and implement practices to minimize the loss of biodiversity and promote  
110 effective conservation in hyperarid, arid and semiarid landscapes (hereafter, arid lands), mainly distributed in  
111 central Asia, northern and southern Africa, southern Europe, western North America, western South America,  
112 and Australia (Fig. 1).

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114 Arid lands have expanded in recent decades and are expected to further expand in coming decades due to  
115 inappropriate management and changing climates (Spinoni et al., 2021), but these drylands should not be  
116 confused with the majority of dryland ecosystems which are threatened by mismanagement. They are often  
117 viewed as a problem that should be "solved", or a space that can be filled with a more desirable ecosystem, or  
118 treated as degraded rather than a diverse ecosystem, and consequently rarely studied in their own right (Feng  
119 and Fu, 2013; Yao et al., 2020; Spinoni et al., 2021). Arid regions are characterized by relatively fewer species

120 than the better-watered biomes, but high levels of endemism, and particularly high functional diversity, thus  
121 the loss of a species in arid lands represents a percentage of biodiversity loss much higher than in more  
122 species-rich regions (McNeely, 2003; Maestre et al., 2021). This makes arid lands a very special regions  
123 regarding biodiversity conservation, especially in a climate change scenario where aridity is increasing (Huang  
124 et al., 2017). Mentions of arid ecosystems within UN sustainability agendas and SDGs are limited to  
125 ecosystem manipulation to prevent desertification, conflating arid lands with degraded systems, and without  
126 the distinction between these fragile natural systems and degradation of other ecosystems (UN, 2015), often as  
127 the result of agricultural practices (Pacheco et al., 2018). Planting trees in arid ecosystems is considered a  
128 solution to environmental degradation and for the mitigation of climate change. Effective panaceas, however,  
129 are rare in natural ecosystems, and such an approach is not appropriate for arid lands; however, more data are  
130 needed to provide solutions for these systems to recover from degradation (Tölgysesi et al., 2021). These  
131 endeavours (such as the Great Green Wall in Africa, and the Billion Tree Tsunami in Pakistan) have the  
132 potential to negatively impact native diversity through habitat encroachment, changes to the water-table,  
133 negatively impact local wetlands, the spread of invasive species, and even allelopathic properties from the use  
134 of certain non-native species (Phelps et al., 2012; Davies, 2017; Bond et al., 2019; Sabir et al., 2020; Ullah et  
135 al., 2020; Naia et al., 2021). These initiatives may also have largely economic motivations, and whilst stating  
136 there are biodiversity increases, metrics to assess this are rarely included (Sarr et al., 2021), and a clear basis  
137 are needed to protect native species from such initiatives. Furthermore, as well as damaging native diversity  
138 these endeavours can have a low success rate, with 80% of planted trees dying within two months of being  
139 planted (Brove, 2021) in the Great Green Wall in Northern China. Likewise, whilst the FAO has explicit text  
140 on sustainable development of arid lands (Malagnoux., 2007; FAO 1989; Sombroek & Sene 1993), it lacks  
141 adequate inclusion of biodiversity and focuses more on agriculture than genuine sustainability.

142

### 143 **Current status of biodiversity in arid lands**

144 Arid lands host a large proportion of global biodiversity with diverse adaptations to the xeric (arid) conditions,  
145 enabling them to survive high temperatures and low moisture. Due to their unique climatic patterns and  
146 distribution, these arid lands have nourished rich endemic biological diversity. For example, the mountains of  
147 central Asia host over 75% of the species of vascular plants in the region (Zhang et al., 2020) and are one of 36  
148 global hotspots of biodiversity (Myers et al., 2000). This region hosts 9520 recorded species of vascular plants  
149 belonging to 138 families and 1176 genera, in which over a tenth - at least 1010 species - are rare and  
150 endangered, many with economic, medicinal, dietary, ornamental, and fodder values (Myers et al., 2000; FO,  
151 2015; IUCN, 2015-2016). More than 900 vertebrate species and tentatively over 100,000 species of  
152 invertebrates have been documented in the region, but due the lack of systematic research and inventory,  
153 regionally endemic species may be lost even before they are formally described (Lazkov, 2016; Li et al., 2020).  
154 This loss translates not simply as the loss of species but also as the loss of varieties of crop-progenitors, such

155 as various fruit trees (Lapena et al., 2014). Given the climate range encompassed by arid lands, further research  
156 of species adaptations in these regions may provide fundamental insights to facilitate approaches which enable  
157 both the maintenance of biodiversity under a changing climate, but also the development of new crop varieties  
158 selected to cope with these challenging conditions. The potential for medicine, and food, as well as crucial  
159 genetic information make understanding and preserving these species a crucial question for humanity. Yet like  
160 the former inland saline lake the Aral Sea, many Arid lands are under threat, and thus more practical measures  
161 are needed for their effective protection.

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163 Similarly, about 45% of the landmass in Africa is arid, and 40% of Africa's population lives in dry land areas  
164 (Myers et al., 2000). The Horn of Africa has also officially been identified as a biodiversity hotspot (Pimm et  
165 al., 2014), and the plant database of tropical eastern Africa includes at least 16,143 species belonging to 248  
166 families and 2,306 genera. A total of 3,000 species are endemic, 700 of them succulent. The second arid  
167 biodiversity hotspot in Africa is the Succulent Karoo situated along the west coast of South Africa and  
168 Namibia. This region boasts 4849 plant species of which 1940 are endemic (Myers et al., 2000). The Sahara-  
169 Sahel region in Africa contains about 2,800 species of vascular plants, one-quarter of which are endemic. The  
170 region is home to 1,147 species of terrestrial vertebrates, 79 of which are listed on the IUCN Red List as  
171 threatened, and 125 are endemic (Houérou and Henry, 2009; Brito et al., 2016). Other arid lands include some  
172 of the Caribbean islands, parts of the Middle East, and areas of North America, Central America, South  
173 America, and Australia (Pimm et al., 2014), all of which provide key habitats for a variety of endemic species.  
174 Yet despite this diversity, with the exception of reptiles, these regions only have a small percentage of their  
175 area with data available for analysis, or reasonable sampling levels relative to their diversity (Hughes et al.,  
176 2021). Many arid land species endemic of arid lands are threatened by the progressive degradation and loss of  
177 habitats and shifting climates, and consequently 86% of large desert vertebrates are endangered or extinct. For  
178 example, desert bird communities have collapsed, with a loss of 43% of species at some sites (Durant et al.,  
179 2014; Iknayan et al., 2018).

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## 181 **Why do arid lands matter?**

182 Ecosystem services provided by arid lands are integral to safeguarding human well-being and a host of species  
183 dependent upon these unique ecosystems (Kang et al., 2020). Some of these species are essential wild species  
184 of crop relatives (such as many fruit trees; Lapena et al., 2014), providing vital genetic resources which may be  
185 crucial to food security into the future. Furthermore, deserts and rocky ecosystems have the second largest  
186 proportion of critically endangered plants of all ecosystems in global analysis (Hobohm et al., 2021).  
187 Conserving the biodiversity of these arid lands is therefore indispensable to achieving global conservation  
188 targets, such as those outlined by the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD).

189 Arid lands represent diversity hotspots for a range of plant and animal taxa, such as Asteraceae, Poaceae,  
190 Aizoaceae, Agavaceae, Cactaceae and Camphomorosmeae, as well as representing the sole refugia formerly  
191 more widely distributed taxa such as the monotypic phreatophyte *Welwitschia mirabilis* (with sister taxa  
192 deriving from the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway 145–100 Ma) and now limited to  
193 Kaokoveld Desert between Namibia and Angola (Jacobson & Lester, 2003). Given the wide taxonomic  
194 diversity, including ancient lineage diversity within arid ecosystems, conserving these groups is an essential  
195 component of global conservation.

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197 Conservation is crucial in these arid lands because they are especially vulnerable to climate change and  
198 anthropogenic activities (Lian et al., 2021). Shallow topsoil and variable fertility slow the recovery of these  
199 systems and increase their vulnerability to erosion when disturbed (Vetter, 2009). This may convert habitable  
200 diverse environments to areas which lose both their biodiversity and economic value of the services and  
201 products they provide, as evidenced by various arid lands across the planet (Feng and Fu, 2013; Yao et al.,  
202 2020; Spinoni et al., 2021). Preventing the further loss of ecological function in these ecologically fragile  
203 regions will require caution to prevent mismanagement creating irreversible shifts in access to water, and the  
204 loss of all species dependent upon these systems. As demonstrated from the collapse of the various desert lakes  
205 such as the Aral-sea, the decline of Lake Chad (in Central Africa) and other saline lakes (Gao et al., 2011;  
206 Wurtsbaugh et al., 2017), changes in these regions can directly alter the water-table and desert aquifers and  
207 lead to transformation of the ecosystem, and thus the resources previously provided by the system. Similar  
208 evidence exists from former habitation in desertified parts of China and other regions where changes in climate  
209 relating to unsustainable water use and inappropriate management have rendered the areas uninhabitable (Feng  
210 et al., 2015). Mismanagement can lead to soil salinization (reducing long term productivity), and enable the  
211 spread of invasive pests and pathogens which may spread with the introduction of non-native species (such as  
212 livestock), yet the control of invasive species can cost billions of dollars annually (Diagne et al., 2020;  
213 Kourantidou et al., 2021). Ultimately these impacts lead to the loss of biodiversity and the economic value,  
214 which is specially concerning taking into account that globally, the human population in arid areas is projected  
215 to increase from approximately 1.4 billion in 1981-2010 up to 4.4 billion by 2100 (Spinoni et al., 2021).

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## 217 **Main threats to the conservation of biodiversity in arid lands**

218 The Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) 2019 Global  
219 Assessment Report on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services highlighted that biodiversity in arid lands has been  
220 lost in the last century at a rate not seen since the last mass extinction 66 million years ago (IPBES, 2019;  
221 Gingerich, 2020). The strategic plan (2011-2020) of the United Nations and the Aichi Targets for halting the  
222 loss of biodiversity and ensuring ecosystem resilience has not been met (Green et al., 2019). This under-  
223 achievement of targets is especially acute in developing countries in Africa and central Asia, likely in part due

224 to a lack of prioritisation or resources, so urgent steps are needed to safeguard biodiversity in ecologically  
225 fragile regions, as less diverse ecosystems such as arid systems are often overlooked. Various factors are  
226 driving the loss of biodiversity, and whilst the overarching themes may be cross-cutting across ecosystems  
227 (such as agriculture) how it manifests in frequently water limited systems with high endemism is specific to  
228 arid systems, and all forms of threat require sensitive and targeted actions as detailed below:

229

230 ***Agriculture***

231 Rapid population growth and expansion of farmland have overdrawn water resources, leading to the  
232 degradation of ecosystems and the loss of species in arid lands. There are multiple worrying examples.  
233 Encroachment in arid and semi-arid ecosystems such as the Chaco in South America for cattle-ranching has  
234 continued to reduce these unique habitats, which decreases the suitability for various species that have small  
235 microclimates and shifts the plant community to one dominated by less palatable generalist plants (Silcock and  
236 Fensham, 2019; Cordier et al., 2021), as well as directly destroying natural habitats and threatening the  
237 survival of species.

238

239 The Aral Sea (in Central Asia) is one of the largest inland lakes on earth, but lost of 90% of water surface area  
240 in the last few decades, and is an example of the sensitivity to irreversible harm due to mismanagement, which  
241 stemmed from the diversion of water for agricultural irrigation (Chuanjuan et al., 2021). More than half the  
242 species that originally lived in the Aral Sea have gone extinct since 1990 (Micklin, 2007). Similarly,  
243 overexploitation of the Ogallala Aquifer for agricultural use in North America, has led to an ongoing decline in  
244 water levels and quality, leading to the drying of unique arid land springs and streams and the disappearance of  
245 their permanent inhabitants, and declines of migratory visitors (Dennehy et al., 2002). This overuse of aquifers  
246 is hugely significant, as many can take centuries to recharge, and the depletion of water can cause irreversible  
247 damage to ecosystems, species and economies which rely on water from these systems; yet the access to some  
248 is even being subsidised in some countries (Wada et al., 2010; Aeschbach-Hertig and Gleeson, 2012).  
249 Similarly, saline lakes around the world, including the Dead-Sea in Israel, are in decline. Many species in  
250 danger, especially migratory birds adapted to use these sites for critical parts of their annual cycle. The  
251 mismanagement of these systems will likely lead to the further collapse of saline lakes across Arid regions and  
252 the species dependent upon them for survival (Wurtsbaugh et al., 2017; Edwards and Null, 2019; Foroumandi  
253 et al., 2022). Saline lakes occur in many arid lands round the world (and are largely restricted to arid and semi-  
254 arid systems), and are essential for various migratory bird species, but with the shrinkage of lakes, and  
255 changing chemical properties due to agriculture in proximal regions, these changes have directly contributed to  
256 declining populations of many of these species (Senner et al., 2018; Naik and Sharma, 2022).

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260 **Resource extraction**

261 Unsustainable use of natural resources, such as the overexploitation of biological resources, has led to large  
262 decreases in many native populations, with some becoming endangered or extinct. For example, the population  
263 of the shrub *Haloxylon ammodendron*, a dominant species in most desert ecosystems in central Asia, has been  
264 reduced by 60% in the Junggar Desert in China and Mongolia due to droughts, and because of over-  
265 exploitation for firewood and livestock (Langming et al., 1998). Likewise, *Malus sieversii*, a dominant species  
266 of wild fruit tree in the Tianshan Mountains of Central Asia, has decreased in abundance by 50% as a  
267 consequence of human disturbance and changing climates (Si et al., 2011). Animals have also shown marked  
268 declines as a result of unsustainable use, for example the ongoing demand for ivory is driving an alarming  
269 decline in African elephant populations (Harris et al., 2019) The illegal trade of various animals and succulent  
270 plants from arid African countries has recently increased substantially (Margulies et al., 2019; Lavorgna et al.,  
271 2021), for example 1.5 million rare succulents, largely from the genus *Conophytum* were removed from a  
272 single protected area in South Africa alone, and with new infrastructure planned for the Succulent Karoo  
273 region where these species originate, international trade may be set to increase. Similarly, cactuses are fast  
274 declining in the arid regions of the Americas with 47% of species collected for the horticultural trade and third  
275 of species threatened with extinction (86% of species threatened by trade come from the wild) and the  
276 conversion of agricultural land (Goetsch et al., 2015). The same is true for various vertebrate taxa, for  
277 example arid ecosystems are hotspots of endemic reptiles in Madagascar, which are now threatened by a  
278 combination of over-collection for pet trade and habitat degradation (Jenkins et al., 2014).

279

280 At smaller scales such as the cold arid Himalayan regions at least 11 plants are prized by Hakeems (indigenous  
281 physicians) of Kashmir in India, and by Amchi medicine (Tibetan traditional medicine) practitioners, and  
282 illegal trade in these plants has persisted even after trade bans (Mushtaq et al., 2016). Likewise, Oleo gum trees  
283 (Guggulu in Hindi) are illegally overexploited for medicinal uses (Dhyani and Anurag, 2015), highlighting the  
284 need for better regulation even at local levels and small scales. Many species adapted for arid landscapes have  
285 slow growth to maintain water, and show high degrees of endemism (Klopper et al., 2020), thus hunting and  
286 collection of items in arid lands, without clear measures to ensure harvest is sustainable; can lead to rapid  
287 population declines. High endemism and small ranges in arid-ecosystem dependant systems is well known,  
288 thus loss and degradation of these regions as well as over-harvesting may have a disproportionate impact  
289 (McDonald et al., 2021), especially given that a diverse range of desert species have been restricted to small  
290 regions since even drier Holocene conditions and may be very range limited (Soultan et al., 2020), and deserts  
291 such as the Namib desert lay have been arid since the Cenozoic (33.9ma; Lancaster 1984). They may be  
292 particularly vulnerable to population declines, with slow rates of recovery. These ancient landscapes may also  
293 be particularly climate sensitive, for example the steppe-desert of Central Asia has existed since the Eocene,  
294 and analysis shows that the unique flora may not be able to adapt to new climate regimes (Barbolini et al.,  
295 2020). Furthermore, patterns of radiation and evolution in these arid ecosystems have occurred at different

296 time periods, with cold arid periods during glacial maxima spurring diversification in areas such as the steppes  
297 of central Asia, and these little protected areas now represent important hotspots for the conservation of certain  
298 plant and animal taxa (Lioubimtseva, 2004). These types of ancient origins are common in many arid-land  
299 ecosystems, the Atacama provides another example, where isolation and diversification of various plant clades  
300 has occurred since the Miocene (Bohnert et al., 2022).

301  
302 **Global climate change and extreme weather**

303 Changes in climate has already driven declines in the populations of valuable species, and the extinction or  
304 loss of range of some species in arid land, such as *Saiga tatarica* in the Eurasian steppes (Kock et al., 2018).  
305 Recent analysis shows that arid lands may be subject to various thresholded “tipping points” especially with  
306 regards to climate, and precipitation and temperature sensitivity may be far higher than previously realised  
307 (Berdugo et al., 2022). Consequently climate changes has caused floristic reorganization and from an increase  
308 in precipitation in Arizona, North America (Borwn et al., 1997), as well as changes in floristic communities as  
309 a consequence of drought (Jürgens et al., 2018). Changes in climate (longer droughts and higher temperatures)  
310 can also impact on the biological soil crust (biocrust) (Reed et al., 2019; Rodríguez-Caballero et al., 2022)  
311 (especially in grazed areas), also undermining the capability of these systems to recover, and overlooking the  
312 unique biology of these regions. Furthermore, changes in climate have also been shown to change phenology  
313 and delay flowering in some regions, which may drive asynchronies and the potential loss of available  
314 pollinators (Daru et al., 2018). Arid and semi-arid systems may change in a variety of ways because of a  
315 changing climate, including changing phenology, structure and productivity (Wei et al., 2021), but analysis  
316 shows that given that these areas often have little elevational gradient, species adapted to deserts may be  
317 among some of the most vulnerable to climatic change (Vale and Brito, 2015; Lian et al., 2021).

318  
319 Special consideration should be given to the impact of a further increase in aridity in current arid lands (as they  
320 may already be water limited) on soil fertility and nutrient stoichiometry; mainly at the level of the plant-soil  
321 nutrients cycle (Peñuelas et al., 2021). Field manipulation studies, where water availability decreased, have  
322 observed significant impacts in nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) changes in the plant-soil system (Jiao et al.,  
323 2016; Luo et al., 2018b). Increases in plant foliar N:P ratios in response to experimental drought are generally  
324 observed because low soil-water contents limit P uptake more than N uptake (Sardans and Peñuelas, 2013; He  
325 et al., 2014; Sardans et al., 2017a; Sardans et al., 2017b; Luo et al., 2018b). Biogeochemical cycles and  
326 nutrient stoichiometry have very significant implications on community composition, and the survival of desert  
327 endemic species (Griffis-Kyle et al., 2018; Sardans et al., 2021), highlighting the importance of soil research  
328 for conservation of arid systems.

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332 **Fragmented habitats**

333 For species to remain viable, and to enable species to track climate by migrating with changing environments,  
334 requires renewed efforts to improve large-scale connectivity of ecosystems, including arid lands. For example,  
335 a consequence of fencing and other forms of fragmentation (leading to longer routes, late arrivals, higher stress  
336 and higher mortality) is decreasing populations of migratory species such as Saiga in Asia, and elephants in  
337 large parts of Africa, as arid eco-systems may have disproportionately large proportions of large-bodied  
338 mammals that need to migrate following annual rainfall (Khanyari et al., 2022). Habitat fragmentation and the  
339 loss of key habitats from large-scale construction, mining, energy development, agriculture, and urbanization  
340 have led to a sharp decline in the populations of flagship species or the disappearance of some important  
341 species. For example, Caspian tigers (*Panthera tigris tigris*), whose range once spanned a vast area across  
342 Xinjiang in China and central Asia, went extinct in the 1980s due to intense human interference, including  
343 deforestation, development, and hunting (Chestin et al., 2017).

344

345 **Invasions by alien species**

346 Arid systems are particularly vulnerable to invasive species, especially after fire (Smith et al., 2000;  
347 Underwood et al., 2009). Invasion by alien species have driven ecosystem changes, population declines, the  
348 loss of biodiversity, and economic impacts. For example, the arid land in north-western China has 165  
349 documented invasive species, 88 and 57 of which are plant and animal species, respectively, posing a grave  
350 threat to local ecosystems and biodiversity. The economic losses incurred from biological invasions in  
351 Xinjiang alone are as high as 1.249 billion Yuan (almost US\$ 200 million) a year (Guo et al., 2017). In arid  
352 Africa, the spread of cacti and various North American succulents has become a problem and is increasingly  
353 leading to large-scale control efforts (Githae, 2018). Furthermore, initiatives to combat climate, such as the  
354 great green wall in Africa, can facilitate the invasion of non-native species, due to a weak legislation leading to  
355 the use of non-native species, often driven by economic rather than by ecological motivations (Jalam et al.,  
356 2021). These impacts are driven by the ongoing refusal of policymakers to address known risks associated  
357 with invasive species, such as outcompeting native species or modifying habitat structure (Perry et al., 2020)  
358 and by high propagule pressure due to the frequent use of non-native species in activities of development and  
359 management in arid regions.

360 **Approaching these threats**

361 *Solutions to unsustainable Agriculture in Arid lands*

362 Regarding agricultural and forestry related issues, the development of standards for exported goods which  
363 incorporate the environmental impacts of products would help reduce the market for unsustainably produced  
364 commodities. Engagement of the auto-industry which principally imports leather from Latin American arid  
365 lands is critical. The use of supply-chain tracking technologies and sustainability mandates can ensure that they

366 are no longer responsible for the clearance of further natural areas, much of which is already illegal, to support  
367 cattle ranching (EarthSight, 2020). Such measures would be complemented by the tighter application of FSC  
368 (Forestry Stewardship Council) standards for exports of wood and charcoal products, which represent major  
369 threats to regions like the Gran Chaco. Some producers have been shown to have obtained FSC certification  
370 for export despite clear violations of standards (Dummet et al., 2021) and significant levels of illegal  
371 production (de Koning, 2020). However, such measures would not help minimize domestic and regional trade,  
372 as they only apply to international trade. Thus, in these regions in particular, renewed efforts to protect a larger  
373 and more representative dry land area are needed. Even small increases in protected area coverage could vastly  
374 expand the protection of sensitive species in these ecosystems (Goetsch et al., 2019).

375

376 Furthermore, policies around irrigation and water-use may help prevent the collapse of further ecosystems of  
377 the kind observed with the Aral Sea. To do this well requires multifaceted action, including better monitoring  
378 (using a range of approaches) of global groundwater reserves, the clear use of data to inform what can be  
379 sustainably extracted, and avoidance of the use of non-renewable groundwater (Mays, 2013; Bierkens and  
380 Wada, 2019; Hu et al., 2019). The depletion of groundwater is most acute in arid and semi-arid areas, and is  
381 only expected to get worse under a warming climate (Famiglietti, 2017; Dalin et al., 2017; Jsechko and  
382 Perrone, 2021). Furthermore, the high levels of endemism in desert springs associated with these systems  
383 highlights the need for identification of key sites of high endemism, and monitoring of flows, and other  
384 measures to ensure that groundwater depletion does not stop flow or alter the chemical composition (Fensham  
385 et al., 2011; Parker et al., 2021).

386

387 Conservation and sustainable use in arid lands can be particularly challenging due to the limited resources, as  
388 evidenced by camels. The last native Bactrian camel populations (*Camelus ferus*) in Mongolia are declining  
389 and critically endangered, in part from hybridization with domestic Bactrian camels (*Camelus bactrianus*)  
390 which are grazed proximate to the last wild herds. Conversely feral dromedary camels in Australia (*Camelus*  
391 *dromedarius*) now have an estimated population of over 1,500,000, which disrupt native habitat and require  
392 culling to just keep populations under-control (Burger et al., 2019). This highlights the sensitivity of arid lands,  
393 and the species dependent upon them, and the necessary sensitivity about introducing species (especially  
394 grazers) into these environments, and the need for careful management when bringing ungulates to areas with  
395 close relatives. Furthermore, whilst these ecosystems are often adapted for grazers, the impact of native  
396 grazing species are different from those of livestock, and prolonged grazing can damage arid ecosystems even  
397 when it does not require the clearance of original vegetation (McManus et al., 2018).

### 398 ***Solutions for unsustainable resource extraction***

399 Regarding resource extraction, better measures are needed in the countries which import succulents, with  
400 many specimens travelling to, or via China and South Korea these transit points may also need to take action to  
401 prevent their role as end market drivers or conduits of an unsustainable trade. Additionally, education of

402 buyers to enable them to select locally propagated plants, and regulations to help ensure this are needed, as  
403 many buyers are likely unaware that they have been importing unsustainable and often illegal sourced material  
404 (Margulies et al., 2019). In addition, initiatives such as FloraGuard that screens digital platforms for evidence  
405 of wild collected illegal material (Lavorgna et al., 2020; Lavorgna and Sajeva, 2021), need to be expanded.  
406 Ongoing addition of species, newly in demand from the ornamental horticultural trade onto the CITES  
407 appendices is also necessary.

408 ***Reducing the impacts of climate change on arid land***

409 Working to identify vulnerable regions to climate change and exclude these regions from agriculture or  
410 development is needed, as recovery may be particularly slow, and once critical thresholds are crossed, and  
411 reductions in productivity can persist (Lohmann et al., 2012; Berdugo et al., 2022). Reducing the impact of  
412 climate change in these systems requires several actions. Firstly, the preservation of areas likely to show  
413 topographic buffering and thus act as possible refugia. Secondly, policies and regulations to prevent perturbing  
414 the water table are required to prevent further areas trying out with possible irreversible consequences for  
415 climate and communities (Micklin 2007).

416

417 ***Preventing impacts from fragmenting habitats***

418 For migratory species in arid lands following annual rainfall patterns is likely to be essential to their continued  
419 survival. That fragmentation may be caused by both loss of habitat (fires, land conversion, agriculture), or the  
420 erection of barriers along parts of the route (Hughes 2019; Esler et al., 2017). Mitigating the impacts of  
421 infrastructure that can fragment these ranges requires ensuring these areas remain permeable, either by  
422 strategically placing fences where they do not intersect ranges, or by providing subways and overpasses for  
423 species to circumnavigate routes (Hughes 2019). The convention on migratory species (CMS) has similarly  
424 dedicated substantial effort to removing fences across many parts of central Asia, which created barriers to the  
425 migration of many species following seasonal rains (UNEP/CMC 2019). Efforts to maintain ecosystem  
426 connectivity and remove barriers across species migratory ranges are needed more widely (UNEP/CMC 2019),  
427 and active planning is needed to prevent ecosystems becoming fragmented. Actions to remove fences often  
428 stem from collaborative work between NGOs and local communities and governments, and has often been  
429 under guidance from the Convention of Migratory species.

430

431 ***Reducing risks from invasive species***

432 Heightened efforts are needed to prevent the introduction of possibly invasive plant species into these fragile  
433 ecosystems and the ongoing spread of species previously introduced. Some arid ecosystems can be particularly  
434 vulnerable, with agriculture and tree plantations often causing the spread of invasive species into arid lands  
435 (Arasumani et al., 2018; Zaloumis & Bond., 2016). Reducing the risk of invasive species requires better

436 valuing arid lands and not using these landscapes as plantations (Parr et al., 2014; Veldman et al., 2015),  
437 especially with non-native species which may colonise arid lands, and may also alter the watertable, and  
438 recognition of “old-growth arid lands” may facilitate prioritisation for these landscapes (Veldman 2015b).

439

#### 440 ***Overarching solutions and how to make them successful***

441 Although all these mechanisms behind species and ecosystem decline and degradation are global, their impacts  
442 are often especially felt in developing countries which have higher rates of population growth, poverty, and  
443 land-use change. Furthermore, challenges with corruption and poor governance may also play a role in failing  
444 to adequately conserve biodiversity. Strategic plans must better acknowledge that sustainable development  
445 requires a baseline against which to measure sustainability, and thus to enable the systematic protection of arid  
446 lands and the species dependent upon them. Solutions to these challenges rely both on the region and the  
447 drivers of the issues. A lack of adequate policies and poor management and regulation has generally led to a  
448 lack of a systemic approach to protecting habitats and species (Fig. 2), many arid land ecosystems are degraded  
449 and are rarely prioritised, or restored in an appropriate way (Dudley et al., 2020). Research database coverage  
450 and information-sharing on biodiversity in arid lands are shockingly inadequate (Bonkoungou, 2001),  
451 inhibiting the development of appropriate approaches to conservation and management. The main challenges  
452 in implementing the UN’s Convention on Biological Diversity in arid lands is multifaceted, including species  
453 biology and social, economic, and political arenas within which people operate. Effective conservation must  
454 transcend the theoretical to provide practical and site-appropriate recommendations for conservation and  
455 management. Furthermore, efforts to combat climate change through planting trees in deserts and savannah  
456 lands are at fundamental odds with ecology and biodiversity, potentially facilitate the spread of invasive  
457 species (Brundu et al., 2020), and may drive major biodiversity loss, whilst failing to deliver on climate targets  
458 (Bond et al., 2019; Naia et al., 2021). More ecologically appropriate nature-based solutions are needed, ones  
459 that acknowledge the synergies between biodiversity and climate targets, rather than naïve approaches which  
460 fundamentally undermine our ability to conserve ecologically fragile areas (Seddon et al., 2021) and frequently  
461 see low rates of success (Ahrends et al, 2017), whilst also overlooking the potential of these landscapes to  
462 effectively store carbon without human interventions (Hanan et al., 2022). In arid lands, normally with  
463 nutritional poor soils, plant invasion success is associated with more conservative use of N and P and retention  
464 capacity (Sardans and Peñuelas, 2013). Thus, alien plant occupation of soil space modifies soil condition in a  
465 way that makes colonization of native species especially difficult. This makes arid lands very vulnerable to  
466 plant invasion in terms of potential loss of native species biodiversity.

467

#### 468 **Efforts and strategies for conserving biodiversity in arid lands**

469 Developing countries in central Asia and Africa are the archetypal representatives of global arid lands, but far  
470 from the only examples. Although strategies to conserve biodiversity at national and international levels have

471 been practiced, these efforts have received much less attention than necessary, and protected area coverage is  
472 still low (Fig. 2). For example, large protected areas in Pamir-Alay, Tajikistan, have been established in recent  
473 decades, including 22% of the country's territory, but few are devoted to floristic conservation compared to  
474 faunal conservation (Nowak et al., 2020). Five central Asian countries, i.e., Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan,  
475 Kyrgyzstan, Turkmenistan, and Tajikistan, currently have 286 protected areas, accounting for 8% of their total  
476 terrestrial area - far lower than in most developed countries (Blank and Yang, 2013; CAREC, 2015; CBD,  
477 2013, 2018). Several of these countries have established Red-Data Books for species at the regional level, but  
478 they remain incomplete, and even when threats are known, often the appropriate solutions are not enacted. The  
479 underlying problems for effective species and ecosystem conservation, are known, and solutions have been  
480 available for decades (Dregne, 1986), but many programs are ineffective, and effective programs for  
481 monitoring and managing arid lands are still only targeted at a small number of regions (Briggs et al., 2019;  
482 Silcock and Fensham, 2019).

483

484 We cannot afford to overlook the importance of arid lands to indigenous communities across the planet (Avaaz  
485 2022). Thus, decision making on the management of these environments at all levels also requires the  
486 inclusion of indigenous communities who are often reliant on these landscapes and suffer disproportionately  
487 from their degradation. The needs of these communities cannot be neglected in securing the long-term future  
488 of these regions, thus inclusion through decision-making processes, education, recognition and valuation of  
489 ecosystem services (Kellner et al., 2018), and programs for poverty alleviation are needed given the high  
490 populations occupying these regions (Gannon et al., 2020). Developing better means to assess carrying  
491 capacity and harnessing new technologies to enable the sustainable use of arid lands for those dependent upon  
492 them is critical. In the future, arid lands will need to sustain bigger populations, and better approaches will be  
493 required to balance the conservation of natural biodiversity with human pressures.

#### 494 **The way forward to conserve biodiversity**

495 For the post-2020 framework to be inclusive and effective, direct goals and recommendations are needed (Zhu  
496 et al., 2021). The recent Glasgow declaration on forests and land use (<https://ukcop26.org/glasgow-leaders-declaration-on-forests-and-land-use/>) featured similar themes, but we have failed to convince the world of the  
497 crucial importance of biodiversity in general and in arid lands in particular. Continuing challenges in  
498 implementing biodiversity loss control programs require clear institutional mandates. Clearly identifying the  
500 roles and responsibilities of different institutions in the process of biodiversity conservation is essential, as it  
501 helps to enhance accountability and transparency. Many of the solutions or strategies for biodiversity  
502 conservation in arid lands in the proposed framework directly come under the jurisdiction of inter-  
503 governmental commitments, and collaboration is needed for these to be genuinely effective (Hughes et al.,  
504 2022). Fund mobilisation and legislation obviously needs the national government to enable the strategic

505 mandates for the local government and communities to manage, conserve, and sustainably use biodiversity and  
506 ecosystem services, and the transfer of technology and building of capacity may be needed to reach these aims.  
507 However, many components of the proposed framework are multi-scaled involving national, regional, and  
508 international agencies, such as representative protection of species and regions and preventing the  
509 unsustainable collection of arid land products. Applying these initiatives to all levels to conserve biodiversity  
510 globally and support the achievement of the Global Biodiversity Framework (GBF) is urgently needed.

511 Future action plans and research should consider the following measures and guidelines to achieve the goals  
512 described in the post-2020 global biodiversity framework of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)  
513 (Fig. 3). The following recommendations could be applied to best protect the unique diversity of arid land  
514 systems:

515

- 516 1. Resources extracted from arid lands should be extracted below the system's maximum capacity,  
517 and local communities should assist (where necessary) in understanding maximum sustainable  
518 yield to enable sustainable harvests in arid systems. Systems of regulation and monitoring are  
519 needed (see Orr et al., 2022).
- 520 2. Renewed efforts for the more representative protection of arid lands are needed to enable the  
521 representative inclusion of arid ecosystems into global protected area efforts and to ensure  
522 enhanced connectivity in the face of climate change.
- 523 3. Irrigation systems must not have far-reaching effects on the water table, and species likely to  
524 impact water availability should not be planted within arid lands. Groundwater monitoring and  
525 management are needed to prevent irreversible declines in groundwater reserves and aquifers.
- 526 4. Grazing, must also account for impact and the herd-size and duration. The location of grazing  
527 sites must follow ecological principles to prevent irreversible damage, and ungulates in particular  
528 should not be grazed proximately to native herbivores where they may spread pathogens, disease,  
529 or even hybridise with wild species.
- 530 5. Supply-chains should be tracked for products derived from arid lands, including all major  
531 commodities. Engagement with major industries (such as the auto-industry for leather) should  
532 also be consolidated to create the mechanisms to prevent unsustainable of arid lands to  
533 agricultural systems.
- 534 6. Certification systems should be enhanced and used with tracking technology to ensure that  
535 products and commodities grown for export are genuinely sustainable and legal.
- 536 7. The illegal and unsustainable extraction of succulents from arid systems requires urgent attention.  
537 Methods to tackle export, import, access (including digital platforms), more rigorous checks at

538 borders (many are easy to conceal) and demand reduction approaches are needed, and  
539 recommendations such as those by FloraGuard should receive the necessary funding and support  
540 to enact.

541 8. Efforts also need to reduce physical barriers (such as fences) and reconnect degraded habitat  
542 patches are required. This includes the removal of existing barriers and special measures to  
543 reduce the resistance these barriers present with the development of new infrastructure and efforts  
544 to restore connections between fragmented habitat patches.

545 9. Urban development and arid land agriculture must avoid the use of potentially invasive species  
546 and must cease to regard arid ecosystems as “an empty space to plant trees”. The introduction of  
547 any new species (plant or animal) should be made based on clear ecological surveys to establish a  
548 baseline and ensure that efforts to restore arid systems have a clear environmental basis, and  
549 impact assessments should be mandated for the development of all native ecosystems.

550 10. The arid lands biodiversity data initiative should be developed to provide the guidance needed to  
551 map species distributions, monitor population changes, and enable evidence-driven management  
552 and policy development.

553 11. Capacity building of local communities in arid lands is essential regarding controlled grazing,  
554 preventing planting non-native plantations, maintaining groundwater levels, and sustainable  
555 management of vulnerable species in arid lands.

556

557

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563

### 564 **Competing interests**

565 The authors declare no competing interests.

566

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