

1 **Title:** Contributions of Red Lists of Ecosystems to risk-based design and management of protected and
2 conserved areas in Africa

3 **Article impact statement:** Red Lists of Ecosystems inform where protected areas should be located and
4 how they should be managed to reduce risks of ecosystem collapse

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8 **Authors' addresses:**

9 David A. Keith. Centre for Ecosystem Science, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia; ²IUCN
10 Commission on Ecosystem Management, Gland, Switzerland.

11 Somaya Magdy M. Ghoraba. Regional Chair for North Africa, IUCN Commission on Ecosystem
12 Management, Egypt

13 Eric Kaly. Laboratory of Plant Ecology and Eco-hydrology, Department of Plant Biology, Cheikh Anta Diop
14 University, Dakar, Senegal.

15 Kendall R. Jones. Wildlife Conservation Society, Global Conservation Program, Bronx, NY, United States.

16 Ané Oosthuizen. South African National Parks, Cape Town, South Africa.

17 David Obura. CORDIO, Coastal Oceans Research and Development – Indian Ocean, Mombasa, Kenya.

18 Hugo M. Costa. Wildlife Conservation Society, Global Conservation Program, Bronx, NY, United States.

19 Fahiem Daniels. South African National Parks, Cape Town, South Africa.

20 Eleutério Duarte. Wildlife Conservation Society, Global Conservation Program, Bronx, NY, United States.

21 Hedley Grantham. Centre for Ecosystem Science, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia;
22 Wildlife Conservation Society, Global Conservation Program, Bronx, NY, United States.

23 Mishal Gudka. CORDIO, Coastal Oceans Research and Development – Indian Ocean, Mombasa, Kenya;
24 Centre for Integrative Ecology, Deakin University, Melbourne, Australia.

25 Juliet Norman. Centre for Environmental Policy, Imperial Collage London, London, United Kingdom.

26 Lynne J. Shannon. Department of Biological Sciences, University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa.

27 Andrew Skowno. South African National Biodiversity Institute, Cape Town, South Africa; Department of
28 Biological Sciences, University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa.

29 José R. Ferrer-Paris. Centre for Ecosystem Science, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia;
30 IUCN Commission on Ecosystem Management, Gland, Switzerland; UNSW Data Science Hub, University
31 of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia.

32

33 **Corresponding author:** David A. Keith; david.keith@unsw.edu.au; School of Biological, Earth,
34 Environmental Sciences, University of NSW, Sydney NSW 2052, Australia.

35

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41 Contributions of Red Lists of Ecosystems to 42 risk-based design and management of 43 protected and conserved areas in Africa

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47 **Abstract**

48 Protected and Conserved Areas (PCAs) are key ecosystem management tools for conserving biodiversity
49 and sustaining ecosystem services and social co-benefits. As countries converge on a 30% target for
50 protection of land and sea under the post-2020 framework of the United Nations Convention on
51 Biological Diversity, a critical question emerging is, “which 30%?”. One approach to an answer is risk-
52 based: we should protect the 30% that returns the greatest reductions in risks of species extinction and
53 ecosystem collapse. IUCN Red List protocols provide practical methods for assessing these risks. All
54 species, including humans, depend on the integrity of ecosystems for their well-being and survival.
55 Africa is strategically important for ecosystem management due to convergence of high ecosystem
56 diversity, intense pressures and high levels of human dependency on nature. We reviewed the
57 outcomes of a symposium at the inaugural African Protected Areas Congress convened to discuss
58 applications of the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems to the design and management of PCAs. We found
59 significant recent progress in red listing, with c. 1000 ecosystem types assessed across 21 countries.
60 While these span a diversity of environments across the continent, the greatest thematic gaps are in

61 freshwater, marine and subterranean realms and large geographic gaps exist in north Africa and parts of
62 west and east Africa. The projects are implemented by a diverse community of government agencies,
63 NGOs and researchers. Already, they are having impact on policy and management, informing
64 extensions to formal Protected Area networks, supporting decision making for sustainable development
65 and informing ecosystem conservation and threat abatement, both within boundaries of PCAs and in
66 surrounding landscapes and seascapes. We recommend further integration of risk assessments into
67 environmental policy and enhanced investment in ecosystem red listing to fill current gaps.

68

69 Introduction

70 Ecosystems are critical components of biodiversity and play important roles in social, economic and
71 health dimensions of human well-being (IPBES 2019). They represent higher levels of ecological
72 organisation, comprising multiple species, their genes and physical environments, and the typically
73 complex interactions and dependencies among them. The full diversity of Earth’s ecosystem types
74 encompasses variations in ecological processes that are key to maintaining the diversity of life and
75 ecological functions throughout the planetary system (Keith et al. 2022). For people, ecosystems
76 underpin the supply of essential resources, livelihoods, cultural and spiritual fabric of societies, and
77 contribute to mental and physical health (IPBES 2019). By protecting ecosystems, natural habitats and
78 the ecosystem services they provide, Protected and Conserved Areas (PCAs) act as nature-based
79 solutions that help people cope with the impacts of climate change, health and disaster risks (APAC
80 2022).

81 Ecosystem risk assessment emerged as a framework for ecosystem management when the International
82 Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) adopted the Red List of Ecosystems (RLE) categories and
83 criteria as a global standard in 2014 (Keith et al. 2015). The RLE protocol enables ecosystem types to be
84 assigned to ordinal categories of risk based on five main symptoms of ecosystem collapse (Keith et al.
85 2013): A) declines in distribution; B) restricted distribution; C) environmental degradation; D) disruption
86 of biotic processes; and E) estimated probability of ecosystem collapse over the next 50 years.
87 Ecosystem collapse signals transformation of identity, loss of defining features, and replacement by a
88 novel ecosystem (Keith et al. 2013). An RLE assessment produces an understanding of which ecosystem
89 types are at greatest risk of collapse, and the underlying causes of high risk, and establishes the
90 foundations for management strategies aimed at ecosystem conservation and sustainability (Keith et al.

91 2015). RLE may be applied systematically to assess risks to all ecosystem types within a specified area
92 (e.g. a country) or strategically to one or a few priority ecosystem types or sub-systems, focussing on
93 diagnosis of the underlying causes of risk as a basis for developing risk-reduction strategies (Bland et al.
94 2019).

95 Africa contains very high ecosystem diversity, with 83% of the world's terrestrial, freshwater and marine
96 shelf Ecosystem Functional Groups represented on and around the continent (Keith et al. 2022).
97 Eighteen of the 20 countries with the lowest Human Development Index (HDI) are in Africa and all
98 African countries are classified as Developing Nations with $HDI < 0.8$ (UNDP 2019). This suggests a
99 convergence of high biodiversity value and irreplaceability, high human dependency and high pressures
100 on ecosystems, from both local use and industrial-scale development. For example, one-quarter of the
101 world's 36 terrestrial biodiversity hotspots (high levels of both endemism and habitat loss) are in Africa
102 (Conservation International 2022) and one-third of Africa's tropical flora is potentially at risk of
103 extinction in the next 100 years (Stévant et al. 2019).

104 Protected and Conserved Areas (PCAs) are one, among a suite of ecosystem management tools to
105 conserve biodiversity and sustain ecosystem services and social co-benefits (Oldekop et al. 2016). In
106 Africa, PCAs have long been recognised as a means for conserving threatened biodiversity, as local and
107 national economic assets and income streams, and as linchpins for sustainable harvest of wildlife and
108 fisheries in surrounding landscapes and seascapes (Harrison et al. 2012). In some regions, they represent
109 the last remaining refuges for native biodiversity in landscapes and seascapes that are now highly
110 transformed by human activity (Joppa et al. 2008). However, the effectiveness of PCAs in conservation
111 depends on sustained ecosystem management activities (Tranquilli et al. 2014; Oldekop et al. 2016).

112 In July 2022, the inaugural IUCN Africa Protected Areas Congress under the theme "For People and
113 Nature" resolved to identify priority actions to strengthen Africa's PCAs in a manner that is just,
114 equitable and fair and that will deepen the involvement of Indigenous Peoples and local communities
115 (APAC 2022). In this contribution, based on an APAC symposium on the Red List of Ecosystems, we aim
116 to distil lessons learnt from African RLE assessments to address challenges posed by data scarcity,
117 resourcing, socio-political context and management implementation. We first describe continent-wide
118 progress on Red List assessments of African ecosystems, then review selected case studies of systematic
119 and strategic assessments of diverse ecosystem types across Africa and conclude with insights into how
120 RLE assessments are guiding effective development of PCA networks and their sustainable management.

121 Progressing risk assessments of African ecosystems

122 Based on IUCN's global ecosystem typology (Keith et al. 2022), at least 81 ecosystem functional groups
123 (83% of world total excluding pelagic ocean waters and the deep sea floor) are represented in Africa and
124 its marine shelf (Fig. 1). Africa harbours more than three-quarters of the world's Tropic savannas
125 (T4.1), one-third to one-half of Tropical and Subtropical Dry Forests (T1.2), up to one quarter of Tropical
126 rainforest and more than 40% of Pyric tussock savannas (T4.2), Semi-desert steppes (T5.1) and
127 Hyperarid deserts (T5.5) (Fig. 1). Small, but globally important areas of other ecosystem groups found in
128 Africa include Seasonally dry temperate heath and shrublands (T3.2), notably the diverse fynbos of the
129 Cape Floristic region, and Tropical alpine ecosystems (T6.5), associated permanent ice and glaciers
130 (T6.1), and Artesian springs and oases (F2.8).

131 Red List assessments have been carried out for ecosystem types representing 31 functional groups in
132 four main areas (Table 1). In total, RLE assessments have been undertaken for 940 ecosystem types
133 across 28 countries, approximately 20% of the current global tally (IUCN, unpubl. data). Terrestrial
134 biomes are well represented in these assessments (75% of total), whereas marine, freshwater,
135 subterranean and transitional biomes are under-represented. Geographically, Red List assessments
136 currently cover southern Africa, parts of east and central Africa, and limited areas in west and north
137 Africa (Fig. 2).

138 More than 1.8 million km² of tropical forest have been assessed over the Congo region, Madagascar,
139 South Africa and Mozambique, and at least 1.6 million km² of savannas and deserts have been assessed
140 in South Africa and Mozambique (Table 1), but extensive occurrences of these biomes in the Sahel and
141 Sahara are yet to be assessed. Smaller areas of the temperate forests (T2, 1000 km²) and shrublands
142 biome (T3, 80,000 km²) have been assessed, but these represent large proportions of their extent in
143 Africa.

144 Among its 18 freshwater ecosystem functional groups, Africa contains up to half of the world's artesian
145 springs (F2.8) and seasonal floodplains (TF1.4), as well as major occurrences of seasonal rivers (F1.4,
146 F1.5), episodic arid streams (F1.6) and floodplains (TF1.5), and large permanent rivers (F1.1) and lakes
147 (F2.1). A large majority of those in Africa remain unevaluated or data deficient, although Red List
148 assessments have been undertaken for important freshwater ecosystems in Egypt (Ghoraba et al. 2019),
149 Congo basin (Shapiro et al. 2021), Senegal/Mauritania (Keith et al. 2013) and some in Mozambique
150 (Lötter et al. 2021).

151 Much of the African marine shelf is narrow, but it contains important representations of seagrass
152 meadows (M1.1), coral reefs (M1.3) and upwelling zones (M1.9). A regional assessment of coral reefs
153 (M1.3) of the Western Indian Ocean (Obura et al. 2022) and the Upwelling zone (M1.9) of the Southern
154 Benguela current (Bland et al. 2018) account for a large proportion of the African representation of
155 those ecosystem functional types. The South African national assessment and a European Union
156 assessment of the Canary and Madeira Islands waters include a broader range of marine ecosystems,
157 but use non-standard Red List approaches (Gubbay et al. 2016; Sink et al. 2019) and are excluded from
158 Table 1.

159 The transitional biomes along the coastal regions include shorelines, supralittoral vegetation, and the
160 complex interface of freshwater, marine and terrestrial realms. More than 13,000 km² of Mangroves
161 (MFT1.2) and Salt marshes (MFT1.3) and almost 18,000 km² of supralittoral vegetation (MT2.1) and
162 sandy beaches (MT1.3) are included in national and regional assessments of the Congo basin, South
163 Africa, Mozambique and Madagascar (Table 1).

164 Red List assessments in Africa

165 We reviewed a sample of six African case studies (three strategic, three systematic) to gain insights into
166 the motivations and data needs for Red List of Ecosystem assessments and how they are contributing to
167 the design and management of PCAs.

168 Strategic assessments

169 Burullus Protected Area, Egypt

170 Burullus Protected Area is one of the most important of 30 protected areas covering more than 15% of
171 Egypt's land area. It includes a Ramsar wetland an Important Plant Area and an Important Bird Area , as
172 well as unique sand plain and salt marsh ecosystems (Khalil, 2013, 2018). Strategic risk assessments of
173 wetland, sand plain, and salt marsh ecosystems were carried out using RLE methods and tools (Bland et
174 al. 2017; <https://iucnrle.org/rle-material-and-tools>) during 2017-20 to support the management of the
175 Burullus Protected Area.). Outputs of the project included a time series of ecosystem maps showing
176 changes in extent and two peer-reviewed publications detailing the assessments.

177 The RLE assessments advanced understanding of ecosystem dynamics, the current status of ecosystems
178 and the underlying causes of risk. Sand plain and salt marsh ecosystems qualified as critically
179 endangered due to declines in distribution caused by socio-economic activities, e.g., urban expansion,

180 land reclamation, and farming (Ghoraba et al., 2021). The wetland qualified for endangered status due
181 to degradation of ecosystem integrity caused by the discharge of agricultural and domestic effluents
182 (Ghoraba et al., 2019). Abatement of risks hinges on enhanced development planning processes to avoid
183 further loss of sand plain and salt marsh and effective pollution control for the wetland, not only within
184 the Burullus Protected Area, but in its catchment beyond its boundary. Ecosystem risk assessment can
185 inform the management of the protected area by framing goals that focus on reducing and reversing
186 current risks, particularly those that emanate from beyond the protected area boundary, and by
187 prioritizing the most threatened ecosystems for restoration. Although limitations on data availability and
188 consistency were overcome, regular ecological monitoring of informative indicators of ecosystem
189 collapse are essential to ongoing assessments.

190 Fathala forest, Senegal

191 In Senegal, like much of the Sudano-Sahelian zone, forest formations are heavily degraded, marked by
192 decreases in wooded areas, reduced species density and changes in their structure. This strong
193 degradation of ecosystems in the Sudano-Sahelian zone is due to regional climatic drying, with
194 increasing periods of drought and rainfall deficit (Le Borgne, 1988), combined with increasing
195 exploitation of plant and soil resources (Toure, 2002). The Fathala forest is an important protected area
196 in the southwest of Senegal that contains two types of forest ('gallery' and 'clear' forest), which are
197 home to a northern population of the Endangered African Colobus monkey, *Piliocolobus badius*
198 *temminckii* Kuhl. Forest degradation poses threats to the tree-dependent African colobus and other
199 animal species (Diouck and Akpo, 2007). The imperative to reverse the degradation of the Fathala forest
200 ecosystem and restore its biodiversity prompted a risk assessment based on the Red List protocol (Bland
201 et al. 2017).

202 The Red List assessment revealed major declines in both the density of tree stems and tree recruitment
203 rates over the past 40 years, as well as significant shifts in composition to dryland tree species,
204 supporting critically endangered status for both gallery forest and clear forest (Kaly et al. 2021). The
205 causes of forest decline were attributed to climatic drying and anthropogenic disturbance, which make
206 conditions less suitable for survival and recruitment of trees and for animal seed dispersers. Following
207 early exploitation for wood and some cultivation for crops, a fenced zone was allocated to private
208 interests for ecotourism and introduction of large herbivores and predators. Initially, these activities
209 reduced tree density, but restricted access later promoted regeneration of trees.

210 Recommendations arising from the assessment to reduce risks of forest collapse include: total fencing of
211 the forest to increase protection against human access and disturbance; assisting natural regeneration
212 of vegetation; extending artificial watering holes to encourage seed dispersal by animals and seedling
213 establishment; and planting additional trees when conditions are favourable to initiate restoration of
214 forest structure. Several projects are now in development to save the forest ecosystem and the
215 threatened colobus monkey.

216 South Benguela upwelling system, South Africa

217 An eastern boundary upwelling marine system off the west coast of South Africa and the closely
218 interlinked Agulhas Bank system on the south and east coasts (Kirkman et al. 2016) comprise “the
219 broader Southern Benguela”, a productive pelagic fishery ecosystem. An RLE assessment based on
220 research surveys, reported catches, ecosystem modelling and environmental monitoring, listed the
221 broader Southern Benguela as Endangered in 2015 (Bland et al. 2018). However, several indicators
222 showed improvement over time and the authors recommended spatially disaggregated modelling and
223 indicator-based assessments to account for spatial changes in ecosystem components and threats.

224 The recommendation was refined in the subsequent National Biodiversity Assessment, which adopted a
225 finer-grained approach, using 31 anthropogenic pressures as proxies for ecological condition (Sink et al.
226 2019) to assess degradation in 150 marine ecosystem types (Sink et al. 2019). Only 5% of the ocean area
227 off South Africa was assessed as threatened, but this accounted for half the ecosystem types examined.
228 More threatened ecosystem types were identified in the Southern Benguela ecoregion than on the
229 Agulhas Bank and further east (Sink et al. 2019), highlighting the need for careful spatial management to
230 prevent biodiversity loss in the Southern Benguela.

231 Recognising the need for further development of methods and data, Red List assessments of the
232 broader Southern Benguela are encouraging iterative development of marine spatial planning via the
233 National National Coastal and Marine Spatial Biodiversity Plan (Harris et al. 2022a, b). This identifies
234 protection of Critical Biodiversity Areas, Key Biodiversity Areas, Ecologically and Biologically Significant
235 Areas as important risk reduction measures. Future refinement of RLE assessment, including model
236 scenarios of plausible futures, will be valuable for assessing the benefits of protecting these areas.

237

238 Systematic RLE assessments

239 Mozambique

240 A rapid systematic Red List assessment of Mozambique’s terrestrial and wetland ecosystems was carried
241 out with existing information to support sustainable development policies during an era of rapid land
242 use change (Lötter et al. 2021). The preliminary outcomes of the assessment reveal that almost half
243 (45%) of Mozambican ecosystems are threatened, primarily forests and savannas along the coastal belt
244 and throughout the central-west of the country. The major threatening process driving these results is
245 deforestation and clearing of native vegetation to facilitate subsistence agriculture, charcoal production,
246 urban expansion, mining and oil and gas projects . Between 2000-2016, over 250,000 hectares of native
247 vegetation was lost each year (República de Moçambique 2018).

248 While Mozambique’s RLE is still being finalised, the results will inform conservation practice and policy
249 in several ways. Primarily, RLE results will be integrated into the application of Mozambique’s
250 biodiversity legislation (República de Moçambique 2017), which requires project developers to avoid
251 impacts wherever possible, and to compensate for residual impacts on biodiversity. Threatened
252 ecosystems are likely to be priority areas for avoidance of development impacts, because impacts on
253 them mandate substantially higher offset requirements than impacts on non-threatened ecosystems.
254 This encourages project developers to screen for threatened ecosystems at the project planning stage,
255 and design development plans to avoid impacting threatened ecosystems before work commences
256 (Ekstrom et al. 2015).

257 The status of different ecosystem types documented in Mozambique’s Red List assessment, in
258 combination with ancillary data on environmental degradation (e.g. NDVI trends, human pressure
259 maps), will help identify potential offset receiving sites, where restoration activities are likely to produce
260 the greatest risk-reduction outcomes to compensate residual ecological impacts caused by development
261 projects. This is already codified in national legislation, and initial scoping from Red List assessments
262 should guide detailed site assessments to verify site feasibility and estimates of offset benefits. Spatial
263 information on risks to ecosystems from Mozambique’s Red List assessment will also inform
264 identification of priorities for potential designation of new protected areas, and expansion of existing
265 ones, through application of IUCN’s Key Biodiversity Areas standard (IUCN 2016), and systematic
266 conservation planning analyses.

267 South Africa

268 South Africa is one of the few countries that initiated an ecosystem threat assessment program before
269 the IUCN RLE criteria were developed, and one of very few with a time series of successive systematic
270 Red List assessments that enable ecosystem status to be tracked over two decades across terrestrial,
271 freshwater, coastal and marine realms (Botts et al. 2020). Indicators of ecosystem status, modelled on
272 the Red List of Species were developed for systematic conservation planning and national scale
273 reporting in the early 2000's. Systematic national-scale assessments were conducted in 2004 and 2011
274 using methods akin to the RLE (Botts et al. 2020). Strong links between the national threatened
275 ecosystem list (equivalent to the RLE) and systematic conservation planning and land use decision-
276 making were established from the start of the process; and culminated in enactment of legislation that
277 formalised and reinforced the protections afforded to Endangered and Critically Endangered
278 ecosystems.

279 In 2019 a three-year process to reassess ecosystems across all realms was completed (Skowno et al,
280 2019; Botts et al. 2020). The methods of assessment generally followed the RLE framework but full
281 alignment was only achieved for the terrestrial realm (Skowno & Monyeki 2021). Almost half of the
282 1021 ecosystem types assessed across terrestrial, freshwater, coastal and marine realms, were
283 categorised as threatened (Skowno et al 2019). Risks to coastal ecosystems were generally greater than
284 those to non-coastal ecosystems, even though 87% of ecosystem types in coastal areas are now
285 afforded some protection (Harris et al. 2022b).

286 Threatened ecosystems identified in the Red List continue to be key inputs into systematic conservation
287 plans, protected area expansion plans, prioritisation for ecosystem restoration, and land-use planning
288 and decision making in South Africa. Alongside species of concern, heritage assets, proximity to existing
289 Protected Areas and operational factors, the ecosystem types most at risk are used to prioritise land
290 parcels for protected area expansion. In the Fynbos biome, 25-100% of the expansion footprint for
291 National Parks is driven by threatened ecosystems; in Table Mountain National Park, and urban park, it
292 is 98%. The park expansion footprint for all National Parks is also incorporated into South Africa's
293 National web-based Environmental Screening Tool, a legal instrument, which stipulates strict
294 requirements for development. More broadly, planning instruments that identify Critical Biodiversity
295 Areas, including those that make irreplaceable contributions conservation targets for Red-listed
296 ecosystems beyond the formal Protected Area network, have proven effective in reducing risks of loss
297 through irreversible land use changes (von Staden et al. 2022). Many of these planning activities

298 leverage ecosystem spatial data used in Red List assessments, which are continually updated and
299 improved since the first national assessment in 2004 (Skowno & Monyeki 2021).

300 Western Indian Ocean coral reefs

301 The Western Indian Ocean (WIO) contains 16% of the world’s coral reefs, and is a globally important
302 hotspot for coral reef biodiversity (Obura 2012). Coral reef ecosystems underpin national economies in
303 the region, particularly fisheries and tourism sectors, and have an estimated asset value of US\$ 18.1
304 billion (Obura et al. 2017). Through funding from Norad (Norway), CORDIO coordinated scientists from
305 more than 35 organizations, to assess risks of coral reef ecosystem collapse at regional and ecoregional
306 scales in the Western Indian Ocean (WIO). The assessment was based on indicators of ecosystem extent,
307 response to future warming, and interactions among key ecosystem compartments (corals, algae,
308 parrotfish and groupers) (Obura et al. 2021). Overall, WIO coral reefs were classified as Vulnerable,
309 while reefs in 11 nested ecoregions ranged from Critically Endangered (islands, driven by future
310 warming) to Vulnerable (continental coast and Seychelles North, driven by fishing pressure).

311 The assessment leveraged data from the Global Coral Reef Monitoring Network (GCRMN) and forged
312 innovations in ecosystem risk assessment including bootstrapping to account for uncertainty in initial
313 states, and a structured (sequential) model of ecosystem decline. This novel assessment approach can
314 be adapted to reef ecosystems in other regions and related ecosystem types, such as mangroves and
315 seagrass beds.

316 A key advantage of this systematic regional-scale analysis and its standardised outputs is in promoting
317 consistent and co-ordinated policies and actions across countries (Momanyi, 2016). Policy and
318 management implications for WIO coral reefs were detailed in a policy White paper developed for the
319 Nairobi Convention’s science-policy forum. Potential actions range from mitigating climate warming and
320 minimizing its impact, to ecosystem-based management at local scales to build resilience of coral reefs
321 and their socio-economic values to climate change. Strategic location and management of marine
322 protected areas is critical to sustaining reef ecosystems and their fisheries (Harrison et al. 2012), which
323 are pivotal to local economies.

324 Local management actions have significant potential to maintain or improve reef health in ecoregions
325 less threatened by future warming, i.e. on the mainland coast (McLeod et al., 2019). ‘National Coral Reef
326 Assessments’ in Kenya, Tanzania, Mozambique will leverage the data streams and analysis from the

327 regional RLE to identify priority reef areas requiring protected area designations or other effective
328 conservation measures.

329 [Insights into risk-based Protected Area Management and design](#)

330 Ecosystem risk assessment has progressed rapidly in Africa since IUCN adopted the Red List of
331 Ecosystems standard in 2014. Almost half of all African countries have at least one RLE assessment, with
332 further assessments underway. Red List projects originated from diverse sources including government
333 agencies (Skowno et al. 2018), non-government organisations and foreign aid agencies (Lötter et al.
334 2021, Obura et al. 2022), research institutions (Kaly et al. 2021; Bland et al. 2018) and postgraduate
335 studies (Ghoraba et al. 2019, 2021). Resourcing levels and available data varied widely among the case
336 studies, although strategic assessments were generally less resource-demanding than systematic
337 assessments, depending on initially data availability. Some assessments leveraged substantial bodies of
338 existing data (Skowno et al. 2018; Obura et al. 2022). The design and management of PCAs is a key focus
339 of many African Red List of Ecosystem assessments, including the case studies examined here.

340 The major gaps in coverage are for assessments of freshwater ecosystems, marine shelf ecosystems
341 except coral reefs, and terrestrial ecosystems primarily in north Africa and parts of west and east Africa.
342 Expansion of systematic ecosystem Red List assessments to fill the thematic and geographic gaps should
343 provide African countries with a strong foundation for achieving targets of the post-2020 CBD agenda
344 (OEWG-GBF 2021). Our case studies show how RLE assessments are reducing risks to ecosystems by
345 informing additions to Protected Area networks in pursuit of 30% targets for protection of land and sea
346 (Target 3); supporting spatial planning decisions envisaged in Target 1; and guiding ecosystem
347 restoration activities required under Target 2. South Africa’s systematic RLE is used to identify priorities
348 for Protected Area additions and to identify statutory Critical Biodiversity Areas (based on Critically
349 Endangered and Endangered ecosystems) that receive regulatory protection outside the formal
350 Protected Area network. Recent analyses show that these areas have reduced risks of land use
351 conversion and ecosystem destruction relative to other areas that do not receive regulatory protection
352 (von Staden et al. 2021). Similarly, newly initiated Red List assessments in Mozambique, Malawi,
353 Namibia and South Africa will help identify Key Biodiversity Areas and support systematic conservation
354 plans.

355 Strategic RLEs have been instrumental in diagnosing risks to ecosystems already within PCAs. Conceptual
356 models, a recommended step in Red List assessments (Keith et al. 2013) were powerful diagnostic tools

357 for understanding the mechanisms and causes of threats to ecosystems in the Burullus Protected Area
358 (Ghoraba et al. 2019, 2021), the Southern Benguela (Bland et al. 2018) and Western Indian Ocean coral
359 reefs (Obura et al 2022). In these cases, as well as the Fathala forest Protected Area (Kaly et al. 2021),
360 the Red List assessments highlighted the permeability of Protected Area boundaries to certain threats
361 and the need for risk-reduction management actions to address processes that occur largely outside the
362 boundaries of PCAs.

363 Risks to ecosystems stemming from outside PCA boundaries usually have social dimensions that interact
364 with ecological functionality (Schultz 2011). In these cases, both human and ecological processes are
365 essential for concurrent understanding of land use and ecosystem changes (Snoo et al. 2013), and hence
366 solutions to ecosystem sustainability. Understanding social drivers and behaviours that underpin human
367 dependence on ecosystems can strengthen conservation management and policy making (Gou et al 2021),
368 however, sociological processes and interactions are yet to be explicitly included in ecosystem risk
369 assessments (Sandbrook et al. 2013).

370 Socioecological models offer suitable frameworks to develop nature-based solutions supporting human
371 livelihoods while maintaining low risk to the ecosystems (Schulz 2011). A case study underway at Tiwai
372 Island Sanctuary, a tropical rainforest in Sierra Leone, seeks to investigate how livelihood choices and
373 values of human communities interact with risks to the ecosystem. Such approaches should improve
374 conservation outcomes and policies.

375 All of the African Red List assessments identified climate change as a major driver of ecosystem decline
376 and collapse. Some ecoregional coral reefs in the Western Indian Ocean are at risk from episodic coral
377 beaching related to rising sea surface temperatures and ocean acidification, while Fathala forest is
378 undergoing degradation driven by sustained regional rainfall declines. While local adaptation measures
379 could help to slow the pace of degradation, the most effective risk reduction strategy hinges on
380 sustained implementation of global climate change mitigation policies.

381 Finally, RLE assessments help to develop ecosystem-specific indicators for monitoring key ecosystem
382 components and processes. Targeted monitoring not only provides sustained data flows for Red List
383 updates and more direct data for reporting than landuse/landcover proxies, but provides insights into
384 the effectiveness of alternative management strategies and the emergence of unexpected trends
385 (Lindenmayer & Likens 2010).

386 Our review shows that RLEs can contribute to more effective design and management of Protected and
387 Conserved Areas by highlighting where they should be located and how they should be managed to
388 achieve significant reductions in the risk of ecosystem collapse. To realise these outcomes, we
389 recommend continuing expansion of Red List assessments to the full range of African ecosystems,
390 especially across west, east and north Africa, and further integration into conservation policy and
391 management.

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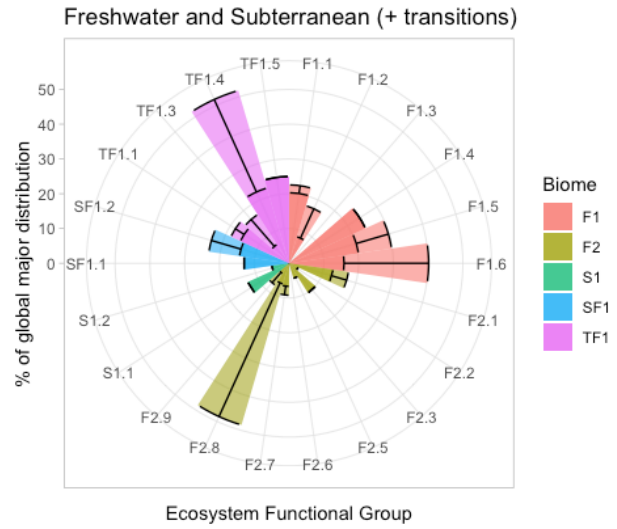
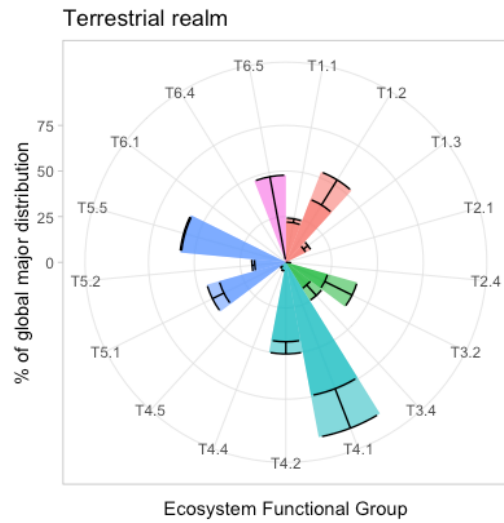
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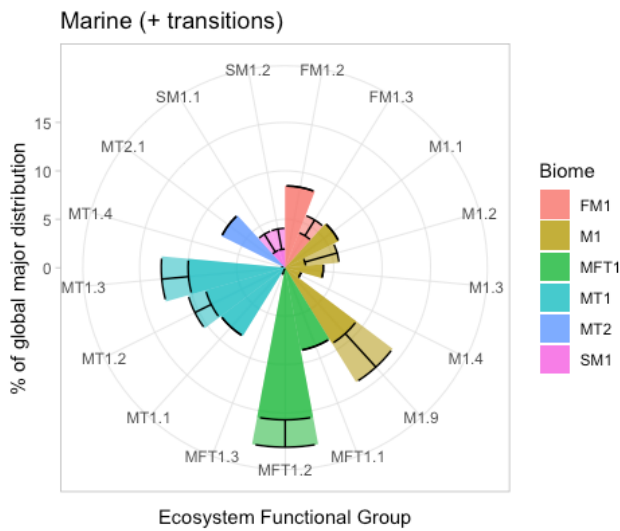
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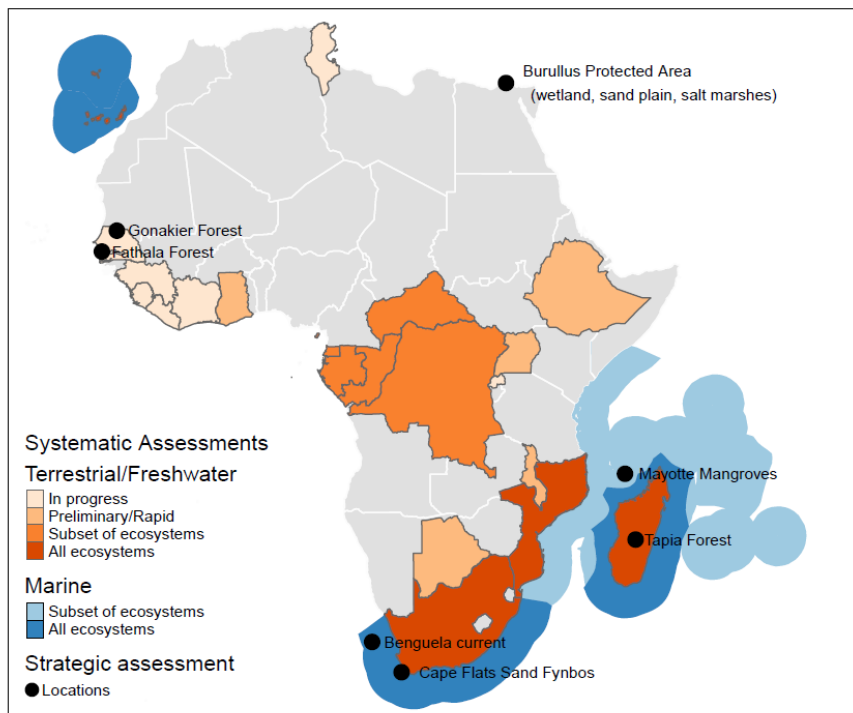
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521 Figure 1. Representation of ecosystem functional groups in Africa as percentage of estimated global
 522 extent based on indicative distribution maps (Keith et al. 2022). Error bars represent uncertainty in the
 523 estimate when minor occurrences are ignored or included. Scales of percentage values are shown on the
 524 left side and are different for each panel.
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528 Figure 2. Strategic and systematic Red List of Ecosystems assessments in Africa.

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531 Figure 3. Strategic Red List of Ecosystems assessments for (a) Burullus Ramsar site; (b) Fathala forest
 532 protected area; (c) the Southern Benguela upwelling marine system; and systematic Red List
 533 assessments for (d) Mozambique; (e) South Africa (photo credit: Emily Weigum); and (f) Western Indian
 534 Ocean coral reefs.

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536

537 Table 1. Extent of ecosystem functional groups with Red List assessments in four areas. Aggregate areas
 538 were calculated from available spatial or tabular data for each assessment based on the best estimates
 539 of current extent. Assessment units were assigned to one or more ecosystem functional groups by
 540 matching their descriptions with those for the functional groups (see Appendix 4 in Keith et al. 2022).
 541 Units: number of assessment units aggregated within each functional group one (+), two (++), three or
 542 more (+++), not mapped (n/m), uncertain match (?); Area in km²; RLE cat: status of ecosystems within
 543 functional group (CO- Collapsed; CR- Critically Endangered; EN- Endangered; VU- Vulnerable; LC- Least
 544 Concern; DD- Data Deficient).

Biome	EFG	South Africa			Mozambique			Madagascar			Congo		
		Units	Area	RLE cat	Units	Area	RLE cat	Units	Area	RLE cat	Units	Area	RLE cat
T1	T1.1				+++	14798	VU-CR	+++	133975	DD, VU-CR	+++	228070	LC-EN
	T1.2	+++	25455	LC-CR	+++	42517	LC-CR	+++	33133	DD, EN	+++	1298766	LC-CR
	T1.3	++	1161	LC	+++	281	EN	++	33724	LC	+++	2544	LC-CR
T2	T2.3	+	37	LC									
	T2.4	+++	1020	LC									
T3	T3.1	+	164	LC	++	6536	LC-VU						
	T3.2	+++	80704	LC-CO									
	T3.4							+	5697	NE			
T4	T4.1	+++	47059	LC-EN	+++	188096	LC-CR						
	T4.2	+++	311634	LC-CR	+++	474677	LC-CR	++	215076	DD	+++	318962	EN
	T4.4	+	1401	LC									
	T4.5	+++	330764	LC-CO	+++	2430	EN-CR						
T5	T5.1	+++	232312	LC-CR									
	T5.2	+++	69908	LC-CR				+++	18333	DD, EN			
	T5.5	+++	5010	LC-EN									
TF1	TF1.1				++	14.1	CR				+++	295090	LC-VU
	TF1.2												
	TF1.3							??	5540	DD			
	TF1.4				+++	21627	EN-VU						
FM1	FM1.2				+	8.13	CR	?	2625	DD			
F1	F1.5				+++	15438	VU-EN	?		DD			
F2	F2.2				+	7600	LC	?		DD			
	F2.3				+	3632	LC						
SF1	SF1.1							n/m		DD			
M1	M1.1							+++		DD, VU			
	M1.3							+++		DD, LC-EN			
MT1	MT1.3				++	348	VU-EN						
MT2	MT2.1	+++	12819	LC-CR	+++	2734	VU-EN	++	2035	EN			
MFT1	MFT1.1							n/m		DD			
	MFT1.2	++	42.6	LC-EN	+	3474	LC	++	2433	VU-EN	+	4041	LC
	MFT1.3				++	3154	LC-EN						

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