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1 Efficient routes to land conservation given risk of covenant failure Richard Schuster^{a*}, Peter Arcese^a 2 3 ^a Department of Forest and Conservation Sciences, 2424 Main Mall, University of British 4 5 Columbia, Vancouver V6T 1Z4 Canada 6 * Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 604 822 1256; fax: +1 604 822 9102. 7 8 E-mail address: mail@richard-schuster.com 9 10 Running title: Covenant cost-effectiveness 11 12 Keywords: biodiversity conservation, conservation covenant, conservation easement, ecosystem 13 services, landscape prioritization 14 15 Article type: Short Communication 16 17 Word count: 3721/4000 18 19 Number of tables: 1 20 Number of figures: 2 Number of references: 32 21

22 Abstract

23 Conservation initiatives to protect valued species communities in human-dominated landscapes 24 face challenges linked to their potential costs. Conservation covenants on private land may 25 represent a cost-effective alternative to land purchase, although many questions on the long-term 26 monitoring and enforcement costs of covenants and the risk of violation or legal challenges 27 remain unquantified. We explore the cost-effectiveness of conservation covenants, defined here 28 as the fraction of the high-biodiversity landscape potentially protected via investment in 29 covenants versus land purchase. We show that covenant violation and dispute rates substantially 30 affect the estimated long-term cost-effectiveness of a covenant versus land purchase strategy. 31 Our results suggest the long-term cost-effectiveness of conservation covenants may outperform 32 land purchase as a strategy to protect biodiversity as long as disputes and legal challenges are 33 low, but point to a critical need for monitoring data to reduce uncertainty and maximize 34 conservation investment cost-effectiveness.

35 INTRODUCTION

36

37 Despite an urgent need to develop mechanisms to promote biodiversity conservation (Bayon and 38 Jenkins, 2010; Estes et al., 2011), developing such mechanisms in human-dominated landscapes 39 primarily under private ownership is particularly challenging (Naidoo et al., 2006; Wunder, 40 2007). One potentially cost-effective route to conservation in such areas may be to promote 41 private land conservation covenants or easements that prohibit land use changes likely to reduce 42 conservation values in exchange for monetary or other compensation (Knight et al., 2011; 43 Merenlender et al., 2004). Advantages of covenants include their low initial cost compared to 44 land purchase (Pence et al., 2003) and their ability to facilitate voluntary conservation with 45 landowners wishing to retain title (Knight et al., 2010). Covenants have thus gained global 46 attention as conservation tools (Fishburn et al., 2009; Gordon et al., 2011).

48 However, few studies identify the conditions likely to affect the cost-effectiveness of covenant 49 versus land purchase strategies for biodiversity conservation (Armsworth and Sanchirico, 2008; 50 Fishburn et al., 2009). For example, because no systematic studies of the long-term costs of 51 monitoring, enforcing or defending covenants against legal challenges exist, it is possible that 52 existing comparisons of land purchase versus covenant approaches to conservation overestimate 53 the cost-effectiveness of covenants (e.g. Copeland et al., 2013; Morzaria-Luna et al., 2014). 54 These uncertainties may therefore represent substantial financial risk to covenant holders and 55 negatively affect long-term success in conservation if left unaddressed (Byers et al., 2005; 56 Knight et al., 2010; Rissman and Butsic, 2011). Although some land trusts have begun 57 developing strategies to address potential financial risk in future (Land Trust Alliance, 2009),

detailed studies of these potential challenges are lacking. It also remains unknown whether
covenants offer similar levels of biodiversity protection as compared to land purchase (Fishburn
et al., 2009; Merenlender et al., 2004), despite that an increased demand for covenants, often
without proportional increases in funding, is underway (Fitzsimons and Carr, 2014). These
uncertainties highlight the critical need for the development of theoretical frameworks capable of
evaluating the cost-effectiveness of biodiversity conservation via the establishment of
conservation covenants versus fee simple land purchase.

66 We developed a simple theoretical framework for simulating conservation outcomes to help 67 define and elucidate the uncertainties above, using detailed data on biodiversity and property 68 values to compare the total cost and effectiveness of land purchase versus conservation 69 covenants as strategies to restore critically endangered Old Forest and Savannah habitats and 70 bird communities of the Georgia Basin of northwestern North America, where <20% of the 71 threatened landscape is owned by governments, and only 9% has been allocated to conservation. 72 Specifically, we asked two questions about the long-term (100 year) cost and biodiversity value 73 of covenant versus land purchase strategies: 1) how might dispute rate influence the cost-74 effectiveness of conservation covenants as compared to land purchase? 2) Assuming that 75 violations reduce the area of covenants allocated to conservation, what is the total area of the 76 high-biodiversity landscape protected over the long-term given investment in covenants versus 77 land purchase? To answer these questions we used detailed distribution maps for 47 bird species 78 and expert elicitation to map high-biodiversity landscapes in the region, and detailed assessment 79 data to represent land cost. We then contrasted land purchase scenarios developed by Schuster et 80 al. (2014) to maximize biodiversity conservation to parallel scenarios that substituted covenants

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for land purchase under a range of assumptions about dispute rate and cost from the literature and local practitioners. Our approach offers a new theoretical framework for evaluating land acquisition strategies for biodiversity conservation and highlights a critical need for empirical analyses to estimate the total costs of long-term monitoring and the potential costs and expected rate of legal challenges.

88 MATERIALS AND METHODS

90 Ethics Statement

Permits or permission for the use of bird point count locations were obtained from Parks Canada 91 92 (locations in National Park Reserves), private land owners (locations on private land), or did not 93 require specific permission as they occurred on public right of ways (e.g., roadsides, regional 94 parks). As private land owners did not want their information posted publically please contact 95 the authors for contact details. The field studies did not involve endangered or protected species. 96 This study did not require approval from an Animal Care and Use Committee because it was a 97 non-invasive observational field study, and did not involve the capture and handling of wild 98 animals.

99

100 <u>Study region</u>

101 We studied a 2520 km² portion of the Coastal Douglas Fir (CDF) ecological zone of the Georgia

102 Basin of British Columbia (BC), Canada (Appendix S1 in Supporting Information). The CDF

103 includes a critically endangered but diverse suite of old forest and savannah plant and animal

104 communities endemic to the region, but $\ge 60\%$ has been converted to human use (Austin et al., 105 2008) and $\le 0.3\%$ of historic old forests (>250 years) (MES, 2008) and $\le 10\%$ of oak woodlands 106 extant prior to European contact remain (Lea, 2006).

107

108 Land purchase cost scenario

109 We built on Schuster et al. (2014) to identify conservation networks based on fee-simple land purchase and designed to maximize avian biodiversity in Old Forest and Savannah habitats. To do so, we developed distribution models for 47 birds based on 25 remote-sensed predictor variables and incorporating imperfect detectability (Mackenzie et al., 2002) to create composite community scores (Schuster and Arcese, 2013). We then combined Old Forest and Savannah community scores to create a beta-diversity metric to identify heterogeneous landscapes likely to maximize the occurrence of both target communities. Cadastral data was used to identify properties and 2012 assessments to represent property cost. We then used the systematic reserve 117 design software Marxan (Ball et al., 2009) to prioritize properties (n = 193,623) by the beta-118 diversity metric for inclusion in conservation networks to protect 20% of the total beta-diversity 119 scores (Schuster et al., 2014). We retained 100 Marxan solutions to estimate variability in spatial 120 network configuration and cost.

121

122 Covenant cost metrics and assumptions

All properties selected in land purchase Marxan solutions were also used as candidates for
covenants under the assumption of willing owners in both cases. We did not estimate change in
land value given covenants as there is no clear consensus on its magnitude or direction
(Anderson and Weinhold, 2008). Covenant costs used here reflect experience at The Nature

127 Trust of British Columbia (<u>http://www.naturetrust.bc.ca/</u>) and Islands Trust Fund

128 (http://www.islandstrustfund.bc.ca/) following examples in literature (Main et al., 1999; Parker,

129 2004). We compiled estimates of fixed covenant costs including: legal, financial advice,

130 registration and endowment fees, as well as scalable costs of property surveys and appraisal

131 (Table 1). Land managers also identified reoccurring costs of annual monitoring and staff time to

address land owner requests (Table 1). All costs were estimated in present day Canadian dollars,

because the alternative of using discount rates equal to the inflation rate for costs incurred over

time and reporting in future dollar values, has been shown to be highly sensitive to the discount

5 rate chosen, leading to substantial uncertainties about future dollar amounts (Arrow et al., 2013).

Conservation covenant scenarios

We calculated the cost-effectiveness of alternate scenarios as the fraction of the high-biodiversity landscape protected, divided by the total reserve network cost for each scenario (Wilson et al., 140 2007) and then standardized this value by the cost of land purchase for comparisons. We 141 followed Rissman & Butsic (2011) to estimate the distribution of dispute costs and fitted a cost 142 profile bound between \$1000 and \$400,000 following the power function cost[\$] = 4845.78 *disputes^{-0.701}. We also explored cost profiles including dispute costs over \$400k using a truncated 143 144 normal distribution with mean of \$400k, SE of \$1M, and 1% probability of those costs arising 145 but found similar results, and thus restricted our analysis to published values. To find the 146 covenant dispute rate that caused the cost effectiveness of land purchase to exceed that of 147 covenants, we used dispute rates of 0.028, 0.28 and 2.8% of covenants per year. Rissman & 148 Butsic (2011) surveyed 205 land trusts to report that they experienced about 2.8 disputes per

year, but because they did not record the total number of covenants represented we could notestimate dispute rates precisely.

151

In each year of simulation, covenants suffered disputes at rates assumed above and, given a dispute, were assigned a randomly drawn dispute cost that contributed to the total cost of covenant scenarios. To quantify the effect of disputes on biodiversity values we assumed that biodiversity loss followed the same distribution as dispute cost, bounded between 0 and 100%, which was then used to reduce the disputed covenant's beta diversity metric. In the absence of empirical study, we also relaxed that assumption by allowing variation in biodiversity loss to follow a normal distribution around the estimate (SD=5% of total biodiversity loss possible). All analyses were conducted using R v.3.0.2 and the analysis script can be found in Appendix S1.

162 **RESULTS**

163 Given a goal of protecting 20% of the high-biodiversity landscape, land purchase scenarios protected a mean of 370 km² (range = 365-374 km²) at a mean cost of 457M (range = 441 – 164 165 470M) (Figure 1a). In comparison, the cost of an equivalent area under conservation covenants 166 averaged \$43.9M in year 1 (range = \$42.6 - 45.0 M) and \$162M cumulatively to year 100 (range 167 = \$157 – 166M; Figure 1a), representing a 65% reduction in cost compared to land purchase. 168 Including dispute rates of 0.028 and 0.28% increased long term costs in covenant scenarios by 2 169 and 23%, respectively (Figure 1a). However, with 2.8% of covenants experiencing disputes 170 annually, network cost increased up to 400% (mean = \$546M, range = \$524 - 570 M), exceeding 171 the cost of land purchase (Figure 1a).

173 Baseline scenarios in the absence of disputes aimed to protect 20% of the high-biodiversity 174 landscape. However, under the assumption that disputes cause biodiversity loss, a dispute rate of 175 0.028% reduced the area effectively conserved after 100 years by 0.75% (range = 0.11 - 1.49%) 176 compared to baseline (Figure 1b). In contrast, an intermediate dispute rate (0.28%) returned a 177 mean reduction of 7.31% (range = 5.25 - 9.25%), and a high dispute rate (2.8%) returned a mean reduction of 53.62% (range = 49.33 - 57.7%; Figure 1b).

Given our results above, the cost-effectiveness of conservation covenant versus land purchase scenarios was 2.1 - 2.8 times higher after 100 years (Figure 2). However, assuming a high annual dispute rate of 2.8% drove the cost-effectiveness of covenant scenarios below that of land purchase within 50 years, and was only 39% as cost-efficient as land purchase after 100 years (Figure 2).

185

186

187 DISCUSSION

188 We show that covenant violations and disputes can substantially affect the long-term cost-189 effectiveness of conservation strategies that employ covenants and land purchase to protect high-190 biodiversity landscapes. In particular, land purchase outperformed covenants as a cost-effective 191 approach to protection when dispute rates were high, in part because disputes may also reduce 192 the level of biodiversity protection (Figure 1b). These results point to critical uncertainties about 193 the cost-effectiveness of conservation covenants and the potential liabilities to covenant holders. 194 In contrast, the low initial cost of covenants vs land purchase suggests that as long as disputes are 195 rare, conservation covenants are likely to outperform land purchase in terms of their cost-

196 effectiveness of biodiversity conservation (Figure 2). We now develop these points in light of

197 literature on land acquisition and conservation covenants and point out several remaining

198 uncertainties.

199

200 Covenant dispute rate

We found that the cost-effectiveness of covenants versus purchases in land conservation depend on covenant dispute rate (Figure 2). This indicates that minimizing dispute rates should be a key goal of organizations that use covenants to maximize biodiversity conservation. However, the paucity of published data on the frequency and cost of disputes (Byers et al., 2005; Rissman and Butsic, 2011) points to an urgent need to formalize the experience of conservation organizations and historically-drafted covenants, identify potential pitfalls and reduce dispute rates in future. Anecdotal evidence suggests that dispute rate increases with the number of successive owners of covenanted properties. If true, this implies that some existing covenants include unrecognized risk to holders that should be remedied before ownership is transferred.

210

211 Dispute costs

We adopted a dispute cost profile based on a survey of 205 land trusts, but including substantial uncertainty and a maximum dispute cost of \$400k (Rissman and Butsic, 2011), but are aware of examples with a potential for much higher costs. Although we used an inverse dispute cost profile in our simulations, the risk of very large costs remains an uncertainty faced by all covenant holders. Thus, additional empirical data are critically needed to characterize cost profiles sufficiently to facilitate realistic economic analyses of alternate strategies (Boyd et al., 2000; Game et al., 2013). Although more complex cost profiles can be imagined, they remain
highly speculative in the absence of data, and our results suggest that modest variation around
the upper end of dispute costs had little influence on our results.

221

222 Biodiversity loss and covenant dispute

The potential for biodiversity loss via covenant violation also remains unquantified in detail, based on existing literature. However, we found that even at intermediate dispute rates, the area of the high-biodiversity landscape conserved declined by >7% after 100 years (Figure 2). At higher dispute rates over half of the originally covenanted landscape was lost under the assumption that disputes involve land conversion and the loss of protected elements or site integrity (Smith, 2009). Although our assumption that biodiversity loss and dispute cost vary directly is simplistic, and not yet tested with empirical data, we suggest it is a reasonable initial assumption given that covenant violations often involve land clearing, road building or new structures likely to reduce the integrity of high-biodiversity habitats. Our results therefore emphasize that covenant disputes may add management costs and also fail to prevent biodiversity loss, and make it clear that these potential costs must be considered when comparing biodiversity conservation strategies.

235

236 <u>Conclusion</u>

Our results suggest that over the long-term, the cost-effectiveness of conservation covenants may outperform land purchase as a strategy to protect or restore critical habitat, as long as the rate of disputes and legal challenges to covenants remain low. We identify several actions that could improve the reliability of comparisons of the cost-effectiveness of land purchase and covenants as approaches to biodiversity protection, including obtaining better quantitative data on: i)
covenant dispute rates and cost profiles over time, and ii) biodiversity loss given a dispute. Our
findings are general and thus should apply to areas with similar patterns of private ownership and
human impact as occurs in the Georgia Basin of western North America, which is currently
subject to very high development pressures and land and/or opportunity costs of conservation.

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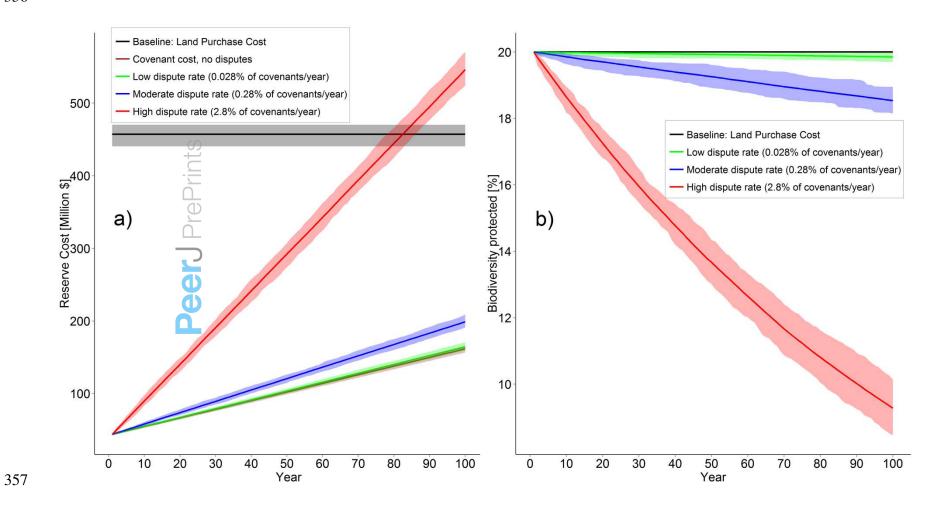
- 340 Table 1: Covenant cost estimates from The Nature Trust of British Columbia and Islands Trust
- 341 Fund. All variable costs follow a saturating curve in the form of: cost = Intercept + Slope *
- 342 ln(covenant size [acres]), with the constraint that the cost could not be below 'minimum cost'.

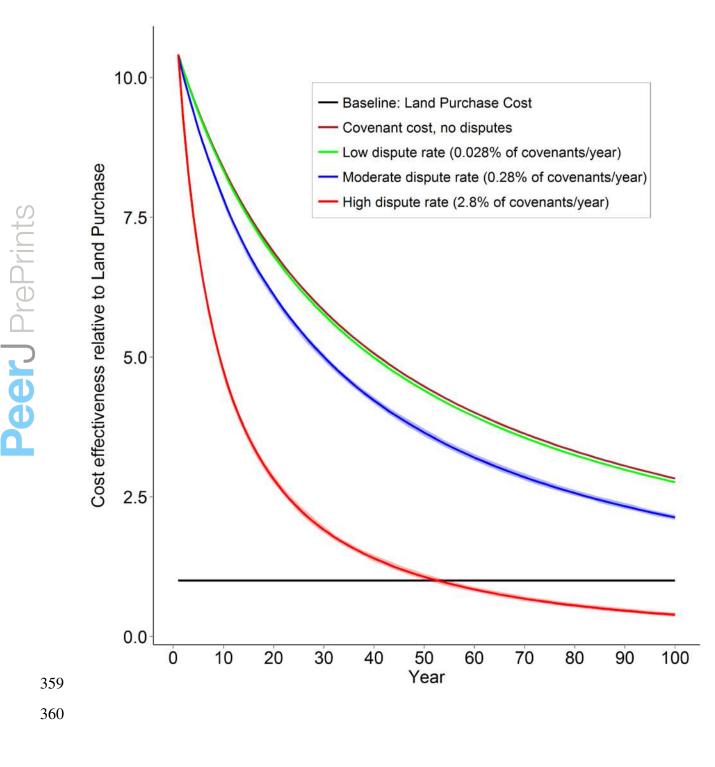
	Cost [\$]
Fixed costs	
Land owner	
legal cost	300
financial advice	300
Covenant registration	200
Endowment	10000
Covenant holder	
legal cost	4000
Variable costs	
Ecological baseline survey	
minimum cost	1000
Intercept	2185
Slope	1957
Appraisal	
minimum cost	1500
Intercept	C
Slope	1957
Land survey	
minimum cost	1000
Intercept	300
Slope	1957
Reoccurring costs [yearly]	
Covenant monitoring	760
Staff cost to reply to Land owner request	152

345 **Figures legends:**

Figure 1: a) Conservation network cost comparison between land acquisition and conservation covenants of varying dispute rates. b) Biodiversity loss of varying covenant dispute rates in conservation networks and an initial 20% protection level of current biodiversity in the CDF ecological zone. Solid lines represent mean values for each approach, and the corresponding ribbons show minimum and maximum values for the 100 Marxan solutions.

Figure 2: Long term cost effectiveness defined as rate of biodiversity protected divided by the reserve network cost. Values are relative to the baseline land purchase scenario. Solid lines represent mean values for each scenario, and the corresponding ribbons show minimum and maximum values for the 100 Marxan solutions.





361 Supporting Information

362 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

363

- 364 Appendix S1. A figure of the Georgia Basin of British Columbia, Canada, highlighting the study
- 365 region as well as the R script that we used for our analysis and simulations.