

1 **Reducing publication delay to improve the efficiency and impact of** 2 **conservation science**

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32 Abstract

33 Evidence-based decision making is most effective with comprehensive access to scientific
34 studies. If studies face delays or barriers to being published, the useful information they
35 contain may not reach decision-makers in a timely manner. This represents a potential
36 problem for mission-oriented disciplines where access to the latest data is paramount to
37 ensure effective actions are deployed. We sought to analyse the severity of publication delay
38 in conservation science — a field that requires urgent action to prevent the loss of
39 biodiversity. We used the Conservation Evidence database to assess the length of
40 publication delay (time from finishing data collection to publication) in the literature that tests
41 the effectiveness of conservation interventions. From 7,415 peer-reviewed and non-peer-
42 reviewed studies of conservation interventions published over eleven decades, we find that
43 the mean publication delay (time from completing data collection to publication) was 3.6
44 years and varied by conservation subject — a smaller delay was observed for studies
45 focussed on the management of captive animals. Publication delay was significantly smaller
46 for studies in the non-journal literature (typically non-peer-reviewed) compared to studies
47 published in scientific journals. Although we found publication delay has marginally
48 increased over time (1912-2020), this change was weak post-1980s. Publication delay also
49 varied inconsistently between studies on species with different IUCN Red List statuses and
50 there was little evidence that studies on more threatened species were subject to a smaller
51 delay. We discuss the possible drivers of publication delay and present suggestions for
52 scientists, funders, publishers, and practitioners to reduce the time taken to publish studies.
53 Although our recommendations are aimed at conservation science, they are highly relevant
54 to other mission-driven disciplines where the rapid dissemination of scientific findings is
55 important.

56 Introduction

57 Across many mission-oriented disciplines, where there is an urgent need to tackle a societal
58 issue, evidence-based decision making is critical to improving the effectiveness and
59 efficiency of practice. This requires comprehensive access to scientific studies providing
60 data useful for judging the likely effectiveness of actions. New scientific studies not only add
61 to the relevant corpus of information that can guide decisions, but are likely to be particularly
62 influential due to continually evolving technologies, methodologies, and skills, as well as the
63 focus on issues of current concern. However, if new studies are not made available, or
64 delayed in being so, relevant information useful for decision making (i.e., evidence; Salafsky
65 et al. 2019) cannot easily be located by decision-makers in a timely manner. Not having
66 rapid access to evidence to inform decision making risks suboptimal outcomes.

67 Biodiversity conservation is an example of a mission-oriented discipline and is motivated by
68 a need for rapid, transformative change across the whole of society to tackle biodiversity
69 loss (Mace et al. 2018; Leclère et al. 2020). Such an ambitious endeavour requires that we
70 dramatically improve and upscale conservation efforts to reduce threats, and to protect and
71 restore species and ecosystems. The urgency of the biodiversity crisis demands that
72 conservation actions are as effective and efficient as possible, using the best evidence
73 available to inform practice and policy (Sutherland et al. 2004; Pullin & Knight 2009).

74 Despite progress in the assessment of the effectiveness of conservation interventions (e.g.,
75 Sutherland et al. 2019), the evidence base is still patchy (Christie et al. 2020, 2021). Many
76 commonly used interventions remain understudied and evidence for some threatened taxa
77 or habitats remains non-existent or minimal for relevant conservation actions (e.g., Taylor et
78 al. 2019; Junker et al. 2020). Without considering evidence on the effectiveness of actions,
79 we risk implementing ineffective or potentially harmful actions and wasting limited
80 conservation resources. Therefore, alongside the upscaling of conservation actions, we
81 need more effective testing of interventions and streamlined channels to make evidence
82 widely available.

83 When conservation interventions are tested, it is important to avoid unnecessary delays in
84 publishing the results. Many issues in conservation are fast-moving and large delays could
85 have detrimental impacts. For example, wind energy infrastructure has expanded massively
86 around the globe from 489,000 MW in 2016 to 681,000 MW in 2019¹, and delays to research
87 papers testing cost-effective interventions to minimise bird and bat collisions could hamper
88 key opportunities to mitigate the impacts of this expansion. In addition, one criterion for
89 identifying Critically Endangered species is a $\geq 80\%$ decline in population size over 10 years
90 or three generations (IUCN 2019). In such cases, publication delay could occupy a
91 substantial portion of the window for effective and efficient conservation action. Without well-
92 targeted studies on species' status, threats and responses, and timely publication of results,
93 we risk mis-spending limited conservation funds on activities that are inefficient, ineffective,
94 suboptimal or, at worst, harmful for biodiversity.

95 The problem of publication delay appears to be particularly acute in conservation. Kareiva et
96 al. (2002) found that the mean time between the date of submission to the journal in which
97 an article was eventually published (i.e., the destination journal) and publication was 572.2
98 days (1.6 years) in conservation science, far higher than for studies in genetics and
99 evolutionary biology which had an average delay of 249.1 days (0.7 years). In 2009, a
100 similar assessment looked at the same conservation journals, and found a destination
101 journal delay of 402 days (1.1 years). This figure was still higher than for other biological
102 fields (taxonomy = 334.5 days; behaviour = 379 days; evolution = 181 days), but had
103 significantly declined over the previous seven years (O'Donnell et al. 2010). The same study
104 investigated the delay between the completion of data collection and article submission, and
105 found a median delay of 696 days (1.9 years), again higher than for the other fields studied
106 (taxonomy = 605 days; behaviour = 507.5 days; evolution = 189 days; O'Donnell et al.
107 2010). If this same trend holds for papers that test the effectiveness of conservation

¹ <https://library.wwindea.org/global-statistics/>

108 interventions, a typical paper will take three years before it can help to inform the
109 conservation community on the effectiveness of an intervention.

110 To examine the extent of this problem, specifically in the literature that tests conservation
111 interventions, we investigate:

- 112 1. The length of publication delay in studies that test the effectiveness of conservation
113 interventions, using the Conservation Evidence database (Sutherland et al. 2019).
- 114 2. How publication delay differs between different conservation subjects, publication
115 sources (i.e., scientific journals or the non-journal literature), how this delay has
116 changed over time, and how delay differs depending on the IUCN Red List (IUCN
117 2019) status of the species on which interventions are tested.

118 We define publication delay as the time taken from finishing the data collection for a study to
119 when the study is published. We discuss the factors that could be driving publication delay
120 and provide recommendations on how the scientific community can work together to
121 minimise them.

122 **Methods**

123 Using the Conservation Evidence database, we examined the difference between the year
124 that data collection ended for a study and the year that the study was published. The
125 Conservation Evidence database contains studies documenting 2,399 conservation
126 interventions (as of December 2020; e.g., sowing strips of wildflower seeds on farmland to
127 benefit birds) across multiple 'synopses'. Synopses are used in the Conservation Evidence
128 database to categorise studies into useful subject areas such as by species group, habitat,
129 or related interventions (e.g., 'Bird Conservation' or 'Management of Captive Animals'). To
130 construct the database, publications were retrieved from the literature using a standardised
131 protocol of manual searching through entire journals, and non-journal literature sources, for
132 quantitative assessments of the effectiveness of a conservation intervention ('subject-wide
133 evidence synthesis'; see Sutherland et al. 2019 for details). For this analysis, we excluded

134 reviews as we were interested in the publication delay of primary literature. We focused on
135 the number of unique studies of an intervention within each Conservation Evidence
136 synopsis. For example, if a publication reports studies of two different interventions (e.g.,
137 supplementary feeding and provision of artificial nests), then these studies are counted
138 separately. Using this classification of conceptually distinct studies, we were able to extract
139 information on when 7,415 studies were published and when their data collection ended.
140 Approximately 3% of all studies did not report dates (280 out of 8,115 in the entire database
141 as of December 2020) and so were excluded from the analyses.

142 Using the name of each study's publication source and a dataset downloaded from SCImago
143 (2020), we categorised the literature in which studies were published into three groups: i.) a
144 'recognised journal' (which had SCImago (2020) impact metrics — typically peer-reviewed
145 journals); ii.) in 'unrecognised journals' (which did not have SCImago impact metrics —
146 typically a mix of less conventional journals that may lack peer-review); and iii.) the 'non-
147 journal literature' (often termed 'grey literature', which typically lacks peer review). This
148 three-way separation of publication sources is a crude proxy for whether they are likely to be
149 peer-reviewed (recognised journals = high; unrecognised journals = low-medium; non-
150 journal literature = low) — thereby enabling some approximate estimation of the time taken
151 for peer-review.

152 Where names of publication sources did not match the names given within the SCImago
153 dataset, we manually searched to check whether names had changed over time, or had
154 been incorrectly recorded in the Conservation Evidence database, and allocated publication
155 sources to the 'recognised journal' category if a match was then found. Where names still
156 did not match the SCImago dataset, we classified whether publication sources were either
157 'unrecognised journals' or from the 'non-journal literature' by manually reviewing the online
158 information, such as the website, of the publication source. Any publication source — such as
159 conference proceedings, books, theses, dissertations, reports, newsletters, and online
160 articles — that did not make explicit mention of being a scientific journal was categorised in

161 the 'non-journal literature' category. Any publication source that explicitly stated that it was a
162 scientific journal was categorised as an 'unrecognised journal'. For names of all publication
163 sources in each of the three publication categories, see Tables S1–S3.

164 We extracted temporal information from the Conservation Evidence database (publication
165 year) and a summary of each study that included information on when the study was
166 conducted (the years the study began and ended). We defined the end year of a study as
167 the year within which data collection ended (not when the intervention ended, for example).
168 End years were extracted from Conservation Evidence summaries using regular expressions
169 and text mining of the website (www.conservationevidence.com) with the XML package
170 (Lang 2020a) and RCurl package (Lang 2020b) in R statistical software version 3.5.1 (R
171 Core Team 2020). This extraction was necessary because this information is currently not in
172 the database. We checked the accuracy of text mining by reviewing data for 79 studies
173 (approximately 1% of the total number of studies analysed) and found that 94% had the
174 correct study end year. Although there were a small number of errors, these were mostly
175 caused by assigning the publication year as the study end year, and therefore would yield an
176 underestimate of publication delay. In addition, automating the extraction of dates from study
177 summaries offered the most feasible and reproducible way to analyse the entire evidence
178 base, and avoided human error and unconscious bias that would affect manual extraction of
179 dates (Christie et al. 2020, 2021).

180 To determine publication delay, we subtracted the end year of each study from its
181 publication year. For studies conducted and published within the same year, their length of
182 publication delay was therefore zero years. The coarse temporal resolution of years will have
183 caused us to overestimate publication delay for studies with a delay of a few months which
184 run between calendar years (e.g., December 2000 to March 2001), but underestimate the
185 delay for studies published in months that do not span calendar years (e.g., January 2001 to
186 December 2003). Across many studies these effects should generally cancel out – although

187 rounding down of studies completed within one calendar year makes our overall estimations
188 of publication delay conservative.

189 We used a Generalised Linear Model (GLM) to quantify and statistically test how publication
190 delay varied: i.) between different synopses (Amphibian Conservation, Bat Conservation,
191 Bee Conservation, Bird Conservation, Control of Freshwater Invasive Species, Farmland
192 Conservation, Forest Conservation, Management of Captive Animals, Mediterranean
193 Farmland, Natural Pest Control, Peatland Conservation, Primate Conservation, Shrubland
194 and Heathland Conservation, Soil Fertility, Subtidal Benthic Invertebrate Conservation,
195 Sustainable Aquaculture, Terrestrial Mammal Conservation); ii.) between different
196 publication sources (recognised journals, unrecognised journals, and the non-journal
197 literature; and iii.) over time (by publication year). For numbers of studies in each synopsis,
198 please see Table S4. Therefore, we used three explanatory variables (synopsis, publication
199 source, and publication year) to predict the response variable of publication delay. After an
200 initial Poisson GLM revealed an overdispersion parameter value of 2.57, we used a quasi-
201 Poisson GLM in which standard errors are corrected for overdispersion (using
202 $\text{variance} = \theta * \mu$, where μ was the mean of the dependent variable distribution, and
203 θ was the dispersion parameter of the quasi-Poisson model). The synopsis
204 'Management of Captive Animals' and publication source 'non-journal literature' were set as
205 the intercept as these had the lowest mean publication delay values based on preliminary
206 exploration of the data. We used Tukey's all-pair comparisons (in the R package *multcomp*;
207 Hothorn et al. 2008) to test for significant differences between synopses and between
208 publication sources using our GLM. For the purposes of our visualisations, the plotted mean
209 publication delay (and 95% Confidence Intervals) across all synopses was obtained using an
210 intercept-only GLM. We used GLMs with a single fixed effect to plot summary statistics for
211 visualisations of different synopses, different publication sources, and changes over time
212 (i.e., using a fixed effect of either synopsis, publication source, or publication year,
213 respectively).

214 As more recently published studies may be more likely to suffer from a longer delay, we
215 conducted a sensitivity analysis by restricting the data we analysed in our original GLM to
216 1980-2020, 1990-2020, and 2000-2020 (Table S8) — we discuss these results later in the
217 Results and Discussion.

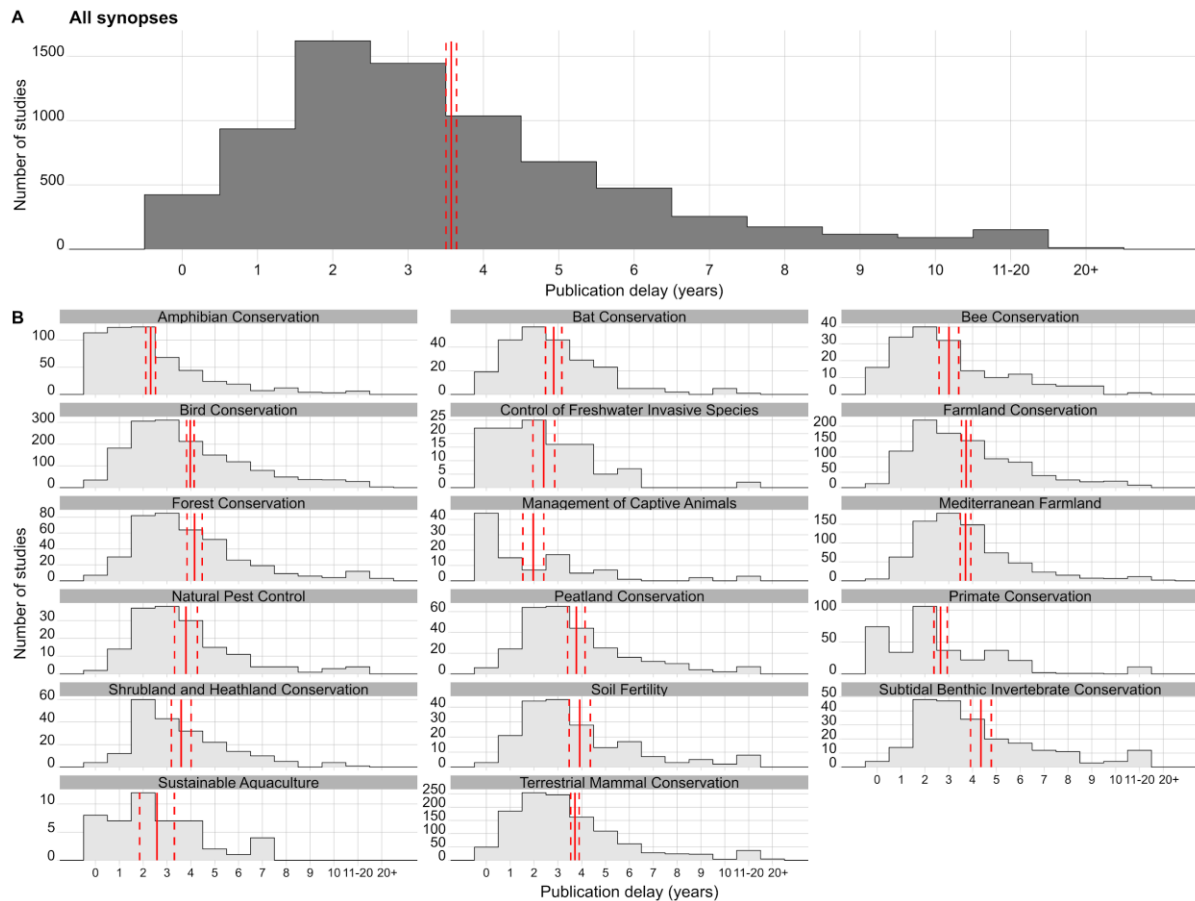
218 In a separate analysis, we tested for significant differences in publication delay between
219 studies testing interventions on species with different IUCN Red List statuses. To do this we
220 extracted data from the Conservation Evidence database on the species studied within taxa-
221 specific synopses (Amphibian Conservation, Bird Conservation, Terrestrial Mammal
222 Conservation, Primate Conservation, and Bat Conservation), and the threat status of each
223 species from the IUCN Red List (IUCN 2019). We limited the analysis to these synopses as
224 these taxa had been comprehensively assessed in the IUCN Red List. We ran separate
225 quasi-Poisson GLMs (using the same fixed effects of publication source, synopsis, and
226 publication year, plus IUCN Red List Status) on a reduced dataset including all taxa-specific
227 synopses, and on separate datasets for each of the taxa-specific synopses (Amphibians =
228 Amphibian Conservation; Birds = Bird Conservation; Mammals = Terrestrial Mammal
229 Conservation, Primate Conservation, and Bat Conservation).

230 For these taxonomic GLMs, we only considered the most threatened IUCN Red List
231 category (out of Least Concern, Near Threatened, Vulnerable, Endangered, Critically
232 Endangered) of all species for each published study. For example, if a study targeted
233 multiple species, such as two that were listed as Least Concern and one listed as
234 Endangered, we considered that as a study on an Endangered species. There were
235 insufficient studies on species with IUCN Red List statuses of Data Deficient (zero studies)
236 or Extinct in the Wild (less than eight studies) and so we did not include these categories in
237 our taxonomic analyses. We were unable to obtain the IUCN Red List status of species at
238 the time when the study was conducted and therefore had to use the current status of
239 species in the latest IUCN (2020) Red List update. Whilst this may mean that, for some
240 studies, certain species may have changed in their Red List status in the intervening years,

241 the current threat category is an indication of the need for previous studies on responses
242 that could have helped prevent this decline assuming that, for many species, threatening
243 processes have been present over long time-periods. R code to perform all analyses is
244 available here: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4621310>.

245 Results

246 The mean publication delay of studies of conservation interventions across all Conservation
247 Evidence synopses was 3.57 years (95% Confidence Intervals = [3.50,3.64]; Fig. 1).
248 Publication delay varied significantly between several synopses ($p < 0.05$; Table S5-S6). Most
249 notably, management of Captive Animals had many studies published in the same year as
250 the end of the study, and a significantly smaller mean delay (2.0 years; Table S4; Fig.1) than
251 most other synopses ($p < 0.01$; Table S6) — except for Amphibian Conservation, Bat
252 Conservation, Bee Conservation, Control of Freshwater Invasive Species, Primate
253 Conservation, and Sustainable Aquaculture synopses ($p > 0.05$; Table S6), each of which had
254 a significantly smaller ($p < 0.05$; Table S6) mean delay (≤ 3 years; Table S4) than most of the
255 remaining synopses (each with a mean delay > 3.5 years; Table S4; Fig.1).

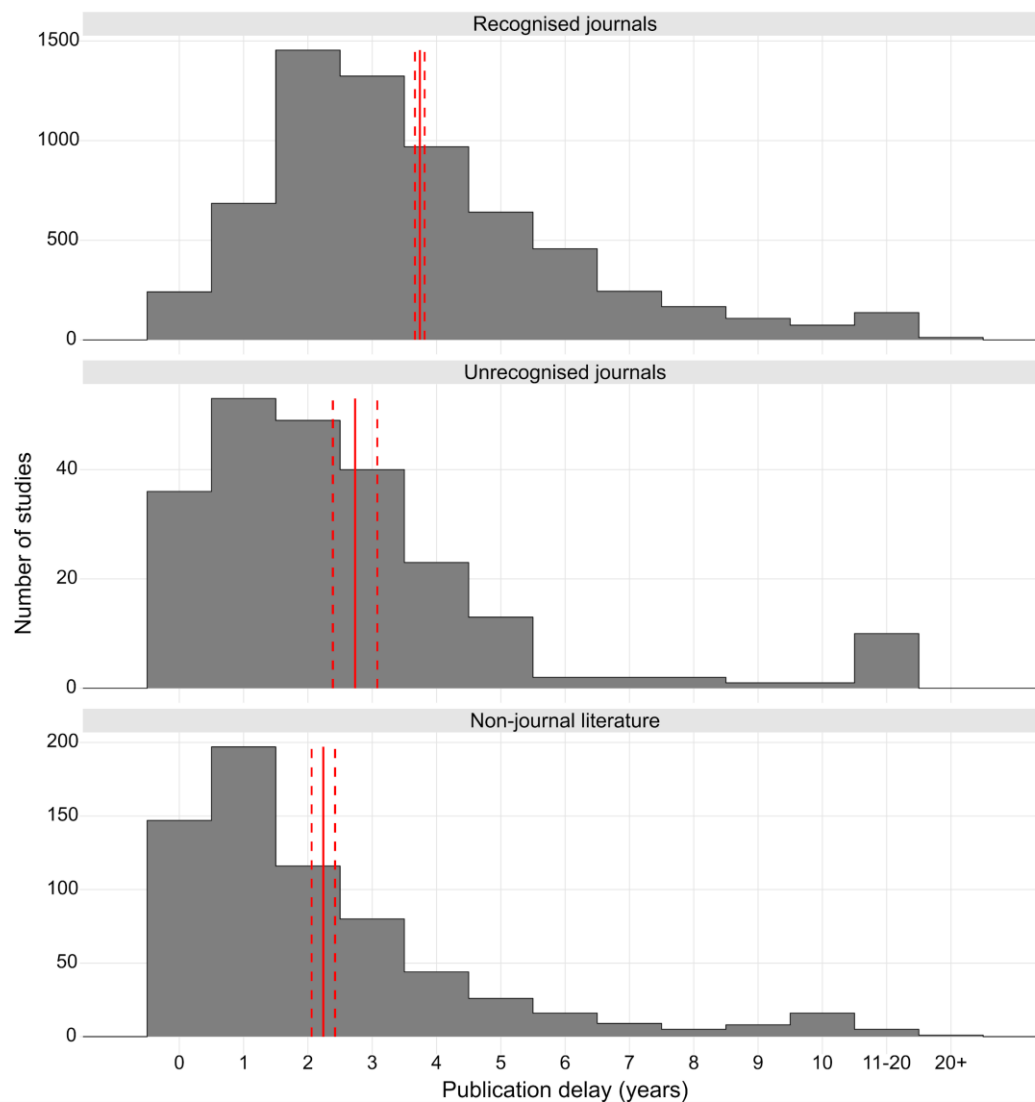


256

257 **Figure 1 – Distribution of studies of conservation interventions according to the length of**
 258 **publication delay (in years) for different Conservation Evidence synopses (each covering a**
 259 **distinct conservation subject — e.g., ‘Bird Conservation’). Solid red vertical lines indicate the**
 260 **mean length of publication delay for each plot and dashed red lines represent 95% Confidence**
 261 **Intervals. For each synopsis, summary estimates were obtained from a Generalised Linear**
 262 **Model (GLM) with only synopsis as a fixed effect, while estimates for all synopses were**
 263 **obtained from an intercept-only GLM).**

264 Publication delay differed significantly by publication source ($p < 0.01$; Table S5; Table S7;
 265 Fig.2); studies from non-journal literature (mean delay of 2.24; 95% Confidence Intervals =
 266 [2.06, 2.42]) had a significantly smaller delay compared to studies published in recognised
 267 journals (mean delay of 3.74; 95% Confidence Intervals = [3.66, 3.82]; $t = 9.9$; $p < 0.001$; Table
 268 S7). Studies from non-journal literature also had a significantly smaller delay than studies
 269 from unrecognised journals (mean delay of 2.73; 95% Confidence Intervals = [2.39, 3.08];

270 $t=3.212$; $p=0.003$; Table S7). Studies from recognised journals had a significantly greater
271 delay than studies from unrecognised journals ($t=-2.940$; $p=0.012$; Table S7).

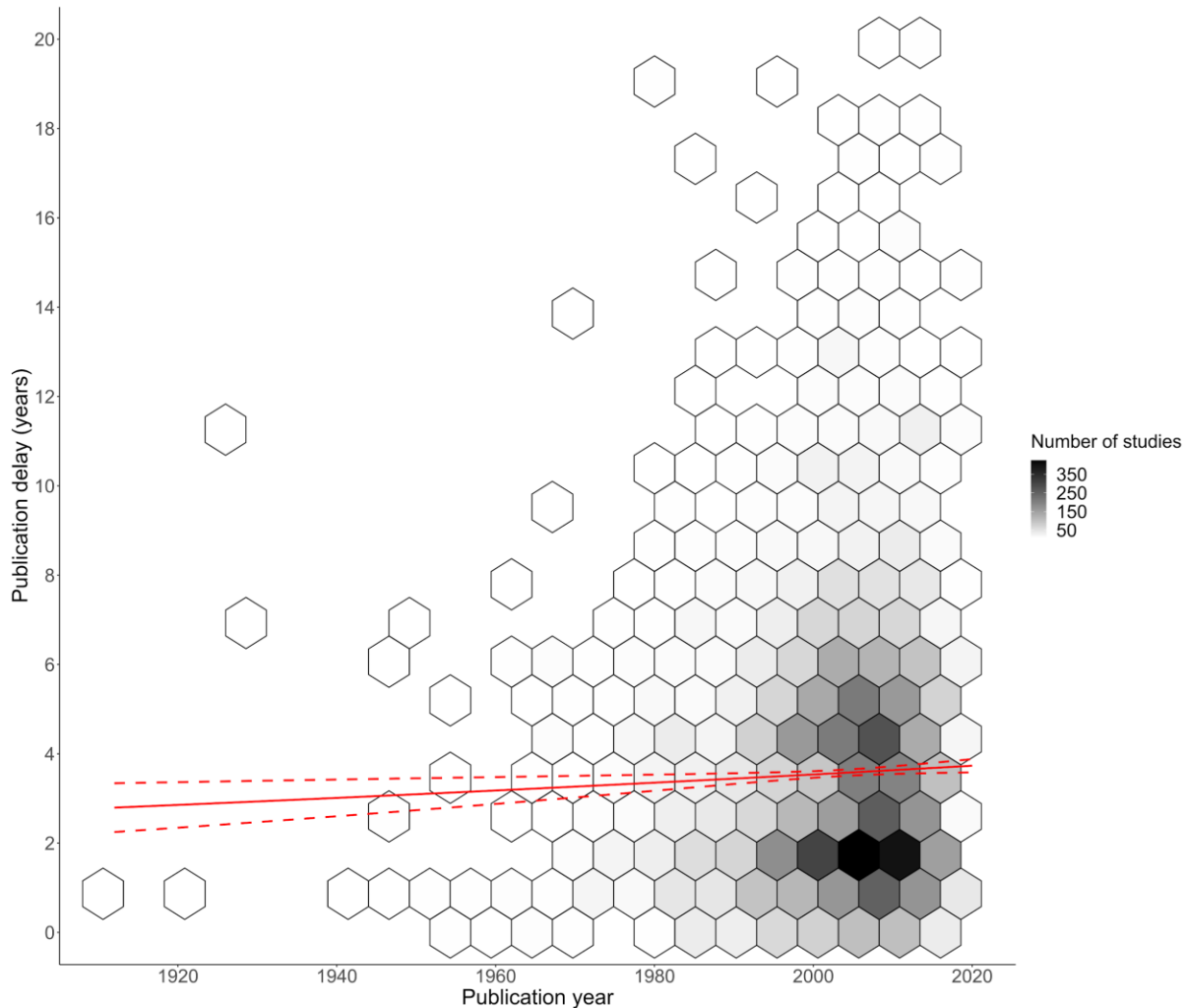


272

273 **Figure 2 – Publication delay in years for all studies of interventions published in recognised**
274 **journals, unrecognised journals (according to SCImago (2020)), and the non-journal literature.**
275 **Solid red vertical lines indicate the average length of publication delay for publication source**
276 **and dashed red lines represent 95% Confidence Intervals. For each synopsis, summary**
277 **estimates were obtained from a Generalised Linear Model (GLM) with only publication source**
278 **as a fixed effect. For journals classified under each of the three categories see Tables S1-S3.**

279 There was a small, but statistically significant, increase in publication delay from 1912 to
280 2020 (Fig. 3; $t=3.598$; $p<0.001$; Table S5); based on sensitivity analyses, a statistically

281 significant increase in publication delay was also observed since 1980 ($t=2.2$; $p=0.026$;
282 Table S8), but not since 1990 ($t=0.3$; $p=0.787$; Table S8) or 2000 ($t=-0.13$; $p=0.192$; Table
283 S8).

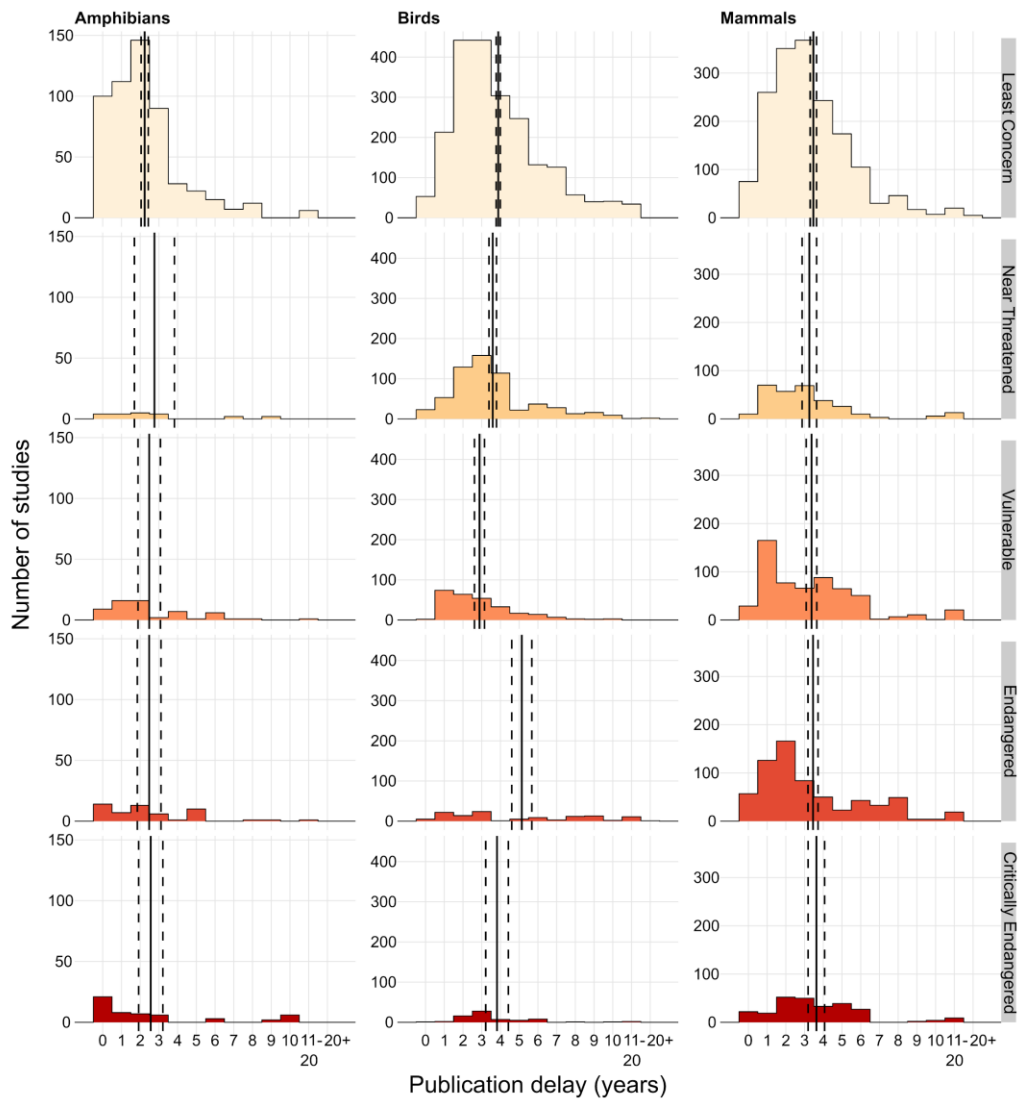


284

285 **Figure 3 – Changes in publication delay relative to the year in which studies of interventions**
286 **were published. The shade of hexagons is relative to the number of data points (studies) at**
287 **that position on the graph. The red solid and dotted lines represent modelled mean and 95%**
288 **confidence intervals for publication delay using a quasi-Poisson Generalised Linear Mixed**
289 **Model (GLM) (with only publication year as a fixed effect; see Table S5 for full model result).**
290 **Only data for a publication delay of 20 years or less is presented to improve visualisation, but**
291 **all data were used in the GLM (see full data figure Fig.S1). We conducted sensitivity analyses**
292 **to check whether the trend changed in more recent decades (see Table S8).**

293 Overall, when pooling studies testing interventions on amphibians, birds, or mammals
294 (Fig.S2), publication delay, there were inconsistent, but significant differences between IUCN
295 Red List status categories: studies on Least Concern species had a significantly smaller
296 delay than Critically Endangered species ($t=3.7$; $p=0.002$; Table S9); studies on Near
297 Threatened species had a significantly smaller delay than Endangered and Critically
298 Endangered species ($p<0.01$; Table S9); and studies on Vulnerable species had a
299 significantly smaller delay than Least Concern, Endangered, and Critically Endangered
300 species ($p<0.01$; Table S9).

301 When only considering Amphibians or Mammals, there were no significant differences in the
302 mean delay of studies for different IUCN Red List categories ($p>0.05$; Table S9). For birds,
303 studies on Least Concern species had a significantly smaller delay than Endangered species
304 ($t= 5.2$; $p<0.001$; Table S9 — although not compared to other categories; $p>0.05$; Table S9),
305 whilst studies on Vulnerable species had a significantly smaller delay compared to all other
306 categories ($p<0.01$; Table S9), and studies on Critically Endangered species had a
307 significantly shorter delay than for Endangered species ($t=2.7$; $p=0.043$; Table S9). Studies
308 on Near Threatened species also had a significantly smaller delay than for Endangered
309 species ($t=6.1$; $p<0.001$; Table S9).



310

311 **Figure 4 – Publication delay of studies of conservation interventions (in years) grouped by the**
312 **IUCN Red List Category of the species that were studied for Amphibians (Amphibia from the**
313 **Amphibian Conservation synopsis), Birds (Aves from the Bird Conservation synopsis), or**
314 **Mammals (Mammalia from the Bat Conservation, Primate Conservation, and Terrestrial**
315 **Mammal Conservation synopses). IUCN threatened categories include Vulnerable,**
316 **Endangered, and Critically Endangered, whilst non-threatened categories include Least**
317 **Concern and Near Threatened (following IUCN Red List; 2020). We did not include studies on**
318 **Data Deficient and Extinct in the Wild species as there were too few studies (see Methods).**
319 **Vertical solid lines show mean publication delay and dashed lines show 95% Confidence**
320 **Intervals. For each taxonomic group (Amphibians, Birds, and Mammals), summary estimates**
321 **were obtained from a quasi-Poisson Generalised Linear Model (GLM) with only IUCN Red List**
322 **status as a fixed effect (using only data on studies from the appropriate synopses).**

323 Discussion

324 Our results suggest that conservation decision-makers must typically wait, on average, 3.5
325 years for the latest evidence testing the effectiveness of conservation interventions to be
326 published. There were significant differences in publication delay between conservation
327 subjects (synopses) and between publication sources, where studies testing interventions on
328 captive animals and studies from non-journal literature had a smaller delay. Although we
329 found publication delay has marginally increased over time (1912-2020), sensitivity analyses
330 suggested this change was weak post-1980s and there is little evidence for any substantial
331 changes over time. Publication delay also varied inconsistently between studies on species
332 with different IUCN Red List statuses and there was little evidence that studies on more
333 threatened species were subject to a smaller delay.

334 Our results concur with previous analyses of publication delay in the wider conservation
335 literature (ca. three years; O'Donnell et al. 2010) and similar trends found in other mission-
336 driven disciplines. For example, studies have shown a destination journal delay of ca. 9.5
337 months in biomedicine (Björk & Solomon 2013), ca. ten months between the release of a
338 press statement of trial results and publication in oncology (Qunaj et al. 2018), and that only
339 53% of vaccine trials were published within three years after trial completion (Manzoli et al.
340 2014).

341 In conservation, a great deal can happen in 3.5 years – a species' population may drastically
342 decline, new threats may emerge – and conservationists may have to take rapid action to
343 avert biodiversity and habitat loss. Without faster access to evidence on effectiveness, there
344 is a risk that practitioners pursue ineffective practices and mis-allocate conservation
345 resources at a time when we cannot afford to do so. Our findings are particularly concerning
346 given that we used a conservative approach to estimate publication delay by coarsely
347 quantifying publication delay using differences between years (which rounds down
348 publication delay to zero for any studies completed and published within a calendar year).

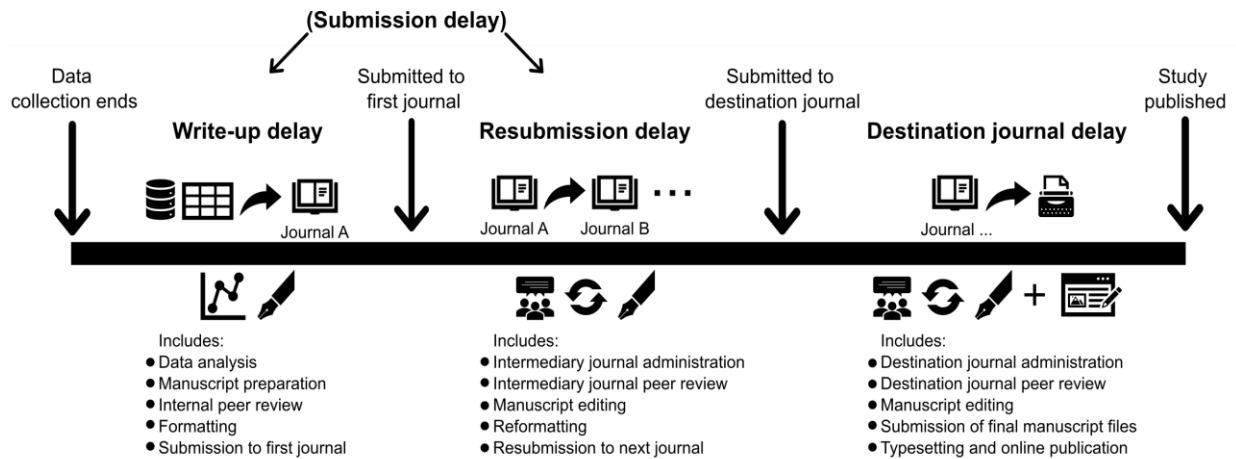
349 We did identify, however, that studies on captive animal interventions had a significantly
350 smaller mean delay (ca. 2 years) compared to other conservation subjects (synopses).
351 Possible explanations for this could be that captive animals are more easily controlled, with
352 studies often targeting smaller numbers of individuals, under experimental conditions that
353 are easier to plan, conduct, and write-up. It may also be that authors target a relatively
354 narrow pool of specialist journals for publication. This could mean that rejection and
355 resubmission to another journal, for reasons other than the quality of science, is less
356 common. It is also possible that specific journals focused on captive animals have faster
357 publication times. Ultimately, it is likely that a combination of reduced time to submission and
358 faster journal publication processes have led to this smaller delay.

359 To better understand and minimise publication delay in scientific journals, it is useful to tease
360 apart the potential sources of delay, namely: (1) 'write-up delay' (the time taken from
361 finishing data collection to submitting a study to the first journal); (2) 'resubmission delay'
362 (the time taken from submitting to the first journal to submitting to the destination journal);
363 and (3) 'destination journal delay' (time taken from submitting to the destination journal to the
364 publication of the study; see Fig.6).

365

366

367



368

369 **Figure 6 – Typical publication timeline defining publication delay for studies submitted to**

370 **journals and categorising different types of delay. Journals A and B are considered**

371 **intermediary journals prior to being submitted to the destination journal where the study will**

372 **be accepted and published. Write-up delay and resubmission delay are often combined and**

373 **known collectively as ‘submission delay’ in studies investigating publication delay. Studies**

374 **published in the non-journal literature would mainly suffer from write-up delay, as such**

375 **studies are typically not peer-reviewed and instead progress straight to publication**

376 **(sometimes after some administrative and editorial processes).**

377 Delays in the publishing system (inc. destination journal and resubmission delay) have

378 received much attention, with calls to speed up the review and publishing of papers in

379 conservation (e.g. Meffe 2001; Whitten et al. 2001; Kareiva et al. 2002). Many journals have

380 now worked to reduce processing times, and increase the efficiency of peer-review, by

381 reducing unnecessary requirements for authors and making final manuscripts available early

382 online (e.g., ‘early view’ prior to being published in an issue). As the publication years used

383 in our study typically describe when studies were published in issue, this may mean we

384 overestimated publication delay for a small number of studies. However, it has been found in

385 other disciplines (urology and nephrology) that early view articles in 2014 were, on average,

386 published only 95 days earlier than the final published article (Echeverría et al. 2017) – a

387 similar delay of less than 3 months is unlikely to have substantially altered our main findings

388 given we used differences between years as our metric of delay.

389 When comparing results from studies in 2002 and 2007, O'Donnell et al (2010) showed
390 destination journal delay had reduced significantly in conservation from 572 days to 402
391 days, a faster decrease than in other fields they studied — although this delay is still
392 substantial, and will hamper effective and timely conservation action. Whilst we did not find
393 any significant decreases in publication delay over the time periods we analysed (including
394 sensitivity analyses on more recent decades), the greater likelihood for more recent studies
395 to have a longer delay could have masked progress in reducing publication delay to some
396 extent — although we would argue it is unlikely that publication delay has decreased
397 substantially, if at all. Furthermore, we found a significantly longer overall publication delay
398 for studies published in journals (mean of ~2.7 years for recognised journals and ~2.7 for
399 unrecognised journals) than in the non-journal literature (mean of ~2.2 years), suggesting
400 that features typically associated with journal publication, such as peer review and editorial
401 processes, are still contributing substantially to publication delay. Therefore, further
402 improvements to the peer-review and publication process could reduce some of the delay
403 we have observed.

404 A more systemic problem, however, is likely to be the combination of write-up delay and
405 resubmission delay, which are collectively known as 'submission delay' (Fig. 1). O'Donnell et
406 al. (2010) found a median submission delay of 696 days (1.91 years), higher than the 402
407 days of destination journal delay observed. Suggested reasons for submission delay can be
408 split into: i) a lack of time, resources, or incentives to write up manuscripts in the
409 conservation community; and ii) the time-consuming nature of the preparation, formatting,
410 referencing, peer review, and resubmission of manuscripts. Anecdotally and from our own
411 experiences, we also suggest that this serious problem in conservation extends to the loss of
412 many potential papers that never complete the stage of write up, let alone submission or
413 acceptance (i.e., 'infinite publication delay'). An increasing length of submission delay often
414 increases the effort and time investment needed to bring the text up-to-date and thus makes
415 work more likely to remain unpublished.

416 Authors publishing studies of conservation interventions tend to be either conservation
417 scientists in academia and conservation organisations or conservation practitioners who
418 have tested interventions as part of their projects. When discussing the need for timely
419 scientific contributions, Meffe (2001) suggested that “those with talents in and value to this
420 field are seriously overcommitted”. Academics have to split their time between teaching,
421 grant-writing, research projects, tutoring etc. (Meffe 2001). Practitioners are often juggling
422 multiple conservation projects with limited funding, little or no time allocated to writing-up and
423 publishing results, and limited incentives as other conservation priorities sit higher up on
424 their agenda (O’Donnell et al. 2010). In both academia and conservation practice, short-term
425 contracts and job insecurity can exacerbate the above and lead to rapidly changing focuses
426 and priorities – meaning that publishing results often falls to the bottom of the pile.

427 At the same time, writing-up and publishing studies of interventions is not easy. Even after
428 write-up, a manuscript may be rejected from several journals, including for subjective
429 reasons of the perceived level of interest from readers rather than the strength of results or
430 their importance for conservation. Substantial edits are then required to suit different
431 journals’ formats, and reviews may suggest major changes which take time and resources to
432 implement. It is common for published manuscripts to have gone through an iterative
433 process of rejection and resubmission to different journals, each of which may review
434 submissions for long time periods, leading to long resubmission delay (Vosshall 2012;
435 Powell 2016). Indeed, a survey of 60 ecological journals showed journal rejection rates
436 varied between 20-80%, and increased with impact factor indicating that many studies will
437 go through multiple submission processes (Aarssen et al. 2008).

438 Since our quantification of publication delay for studies in the non-journal literature effectively
439 represents write-up delay (at least to a great extent, as these studies are not typically peer-
440 reviewed; see Fig.1), we can argue that resubmission delay generally makes up a
441 substantial part of overall publication delay and may typically be greater than write-up delay
442 (given that non-journal studies had a significantly smaller mean delay of ~2.2 years

443 compared to ~3.7 years for recognised journals). Previous studies have included this
444 resubmission delay within submission delay (see Fig. 6), but our findings tentatively suggest
445 that write-up delay is generally smaller than the combination of resubmission delay and
446 destination journal delay. We suggest future work could build on our results by directly
447 quantifying and disentangling the components of publication delay observed, to help target
448 action in areas that require more focus.

449 In Table 1, we present a set of possible solutions that could help to reduce write-up,
450 resubmission, and destination journal delay. Whilst the solutions outlined in Table 1 are
451 focussed specifically on conservation science, we believe they are relevant to many different
452 disciplines tackling publication delay. The COVID-19 pandemic has seen a far-reaching
453 response from the scientific community to boost the rate at which scientific research is being
454 conducted and published (including studies of healthcare interventions) through clear
455 incentives to publish, rapid peer-review, and streamlined editorial processes (Horbach
456 2020).

457 We believe that the conservation community could learn from this effort to build a strong
458 evidence base that is rapidly updated with the latest studies of conservation interventions to
459 help address the biodiversity crisis. Nevertheless, there is concern over the unavoidable
460 trade-off between speed and quality in the dissemination of scientific evidence; for example,
461 pre-print articles may make studies instantly accessible to decision-makers, but without
462 rigorous peer-review, a cornerstone of the scientific publication process, such articles may
463 contain poor quality data and analyses, and make unsubstantiated claims that are not
464 supported by data. Accelerated publication of studies related to COVID-19 has been
465 associated with a decline in methodological quality (Jung et al. 2021) and many retracted,
466 disputed or heavily criticised papers (<https://retractionwatch.com/retracted-coronavirus-covid-19-papers/>). It is therefore crucial to minimise publication delay at each stage of the
467 process, but not at the cost of reduced scientific rigour which may lead to poor quality
468 evidence-based advice and ultimately ineffective, inefficient, or even harmful action.
469

470 Comprehensive and timely access to scientific evidence is vital for effective evidence-based
471 decision making in any mission-driven discipline, but particularly in biodiversity conservation
472 given the need to reverse the dramatic loss of biodiversity. Concerted action is required to
473 streamline the rigorous testing and reporting of conservation interventions' effectiveness to
474 cover known gaps and biases in the evidence base (Christie et al. 2020, 2021). We believe
475 our study clearly demonstrates the need for academics, practitioners, journals,
476 organisations, and funders to work together as a scientific community to reduce publication
477 delay as much as possible.

478 **Box 1 — Possible solutions to reduce publication delay for studies of conservation actions. These are only possible solutions and should not be**
 479 **taken as recommendations — for example, there are concerns over the dissemination of non-peer-reviewed scientific results from preprint servers**
 480 **and we do not advocate circumventing the peer-review process to reduce publication delay because of the risk of misinforming decision-makers.**

Component of Delay	Conservation scientists and practitioners	Journals and publishers	Funders and organisations
Write-up delay	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Build publication into project plans. ● Collaboration between scientists and practitioners to design experiments and publish results. Research organisations sometimes have time and money to write up and publish results. ● Buddy schemes match up individuals with others with time and knowledge suitable for analysing and writing up results. ● Authors pre-register study designs and/or analyses before undertaking data collection where possible (or submit a registered report). The extra planning involved (prior to data collection) could help reduce the need to correct errors later on or undertake more time-consuming analyses (Parker et al. 2019). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Less strict formatting and structure requirements for initial submission. ● Journals agree a set of styles to reduce the cost of resubmission. ● Journals produce article templates (e.g., as for Conservation Evidence Journal and Oryx). ● Journals produce article types better suited for the rapid publication of tests of interventions (e.g., Research Notes, ‘Evidence’ articles in Conservation Science and Practice, Conservation Evidence Journal). ● Offer pre-registration or publication of registered reports to help speed up analyses and write-up when authors finish agreed methods of data collection (Parker et al. 2019). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Include funding, and time for writing up, in budgets. ● Include and accept published papers as project outcomes instead of reports. ● Build a culture that values the creation of evidence-base and timely dissemination of results through training in evidence-based methods, and scientific write up. ● Develop and/or use clear, standardised guidelines for writing up scientific articles.

Component of Delay	Conservation scientists and practitioners	Journals and publishers	Funders and organisations
Resubmission delay	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Authors “calibrate” submissions to journals best suited to their work (Vosshall 2012) to avoid lengthy rejections and resubmissions. ● Authors publish pre-prints online (e.g., BioRxiv, EcoEvoRxiv, SocRxiv) when the work has been submitted to a journal. However, caution should be taken if disseminating results due to the lack of peer-review. ● Authors pre-register study designs and/or analyses before undertaking data collection where possible (or submit a registered report). This could help reduce the likelihood of rejection and the need for lengthy resubmissions and revisions due to poor quality study design or analyses (Parker et al. 2019). ● Adoption of one submission models (e.g., ‘Peerage of Science’ and ‘Peer Community In’) that provide peer-review that multiple publishers can access, and link papers with interested journals who 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Reduce unnecessary effort required for initial submissions — e.g., universal formatting, word counts, flexibility in section layouts, pre-submission enquiries etc. ● Reduce time spent in unnecessary rounds of review through quick rejections, and decisive editorial decisions. ● Incentivise peer review e.g., payments or free subscription, awards for fast, high-quality reviews (Nguyen et al. 2015), or giving reviewer’s their own DOI (if reviews are transparent; Stern & O’Shea 2019). ● Consider how deadlines given to peer reviewers and editors affect publication delay and adjust these deadlines if necessary. ● Consider consulting a wider pool of reviewers, and training graduate students in peer review (Nguyen et al. 2015). ● Offer pre-registration or publication of registered reports to help the likelihood of rejection and the need for lengthy resubmissions and revisions due to poor quality study design or analyses (Parker et al. 2019). ● In time-critical cases, use preliminary peer-review before submission where journals pre-identify referees in advance (e.g., fast-tracked 	

Component of Delay	Conservation scientists and practitioners	Journals and publishers	Funders and organisations
	<p>use other’s reviews to guide their decisions.</p>	<p>papers in Biological Conservation; Biological Conservation 2021) and/or send drafts to reviewers pre-review to allow reviewers to prepare comments (Sutherland & Lythgoe 2020).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Once accepted, publish quickly (e.g., early view, online publishing) to reduce the time spent in publication limbo. ● Embrace new initiatives of transparent peer-review to: share reviews between potential publishers, identify papers of interest and quickly publish the already reviewed articles. ● Move to a peer-review system that is “publish first, curate second” through strengthening and increasing the use of preprint servers, allowing open, transparent peer-review, and the development of curation journals to select those articles of interest for specific audiences (Stern & O’Shea 2019). This has been realised during the COVID-19 pandemic with the creation of RR:C19 a journal that rapidly and transparently reviews and curates pre-prints (Dhar & Brand 2020). 	

Component of Delay	Conservation scientists and practitioners	Journals and publishers	Funders and organisations
Destination journal delay	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Select platforms and journals that have taken steps to reduce publication delay in the publication and peer-review process. ● Consider the use of submission models (such as ‘Peer Community In’ or ‘Octopus’) that provide transparent peer-review and recommendation of pre-prints or initial submissions, but without the requirement for, although compatible with, journal publication. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Promote the use of platforms and journals that have taken steps to reduce publication delay in the publication and peer-review process.

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