

1 Title:

2 Patterns of community science data use in peer-reviewed research on biodiversity

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20 Abstract

21 Community science (“citizen science”) represent a potentially abundant and inexpensive source
22 of information for biodiversity research. However, analyzing such data has inherent challenges.
23 To explore where and how community science data are translated into scientific knowledge, we
24 conducted a literature review in a sample of 334 peer-reviewed scientific articles. Specifically,
25 we investigated how the use of community science data varied among taxonomic groups and
26 geographic regions, and what threats to biodiversity, if any, were examined. Community science
27 data were used mostly for research on birds and invertebrates, and the data used were mainly
28 from the United States and the United Kingdom. Literature in certain countries used a wider
29 breadth of projects, while others made repeated use of comparably fewer datasets. Community
30 science efforts were largely used to measure abundance, trends, distributions, and range shifts.
31 However, few articles linked these metrics to any particular threats to biodiversity. Furthermore,
32 community science data were used infrequently for research on threatened species and limited
33 mostly to count data rather than collecting more specific information such as life history,
34 phenological or genetic data, suggesting that community science may be underutilized for these
35 key aspects of biodiversity conservation. We conclude that even with the rise of community
36 science data use in research, there remains tremendous potential to better use these existing
37 datasets for biodiversity research.

38

39 Keywords: big data, biodiversity, citizen science, conservation, evidence synthesis

40

41 1. Introduction

42 Understanding and responding to the biodiversity crisis requires extensive analysis of
43 biodiversity data. Monitoring the world's biodiversity however is no easy task, and much is still
44 unknown about the patterns of species in space and time. In addition, monitoring efforts are
45 biased both geographically (Nerlekar et al., 2019; Reddy & Dávalos, 2003; Yang et al., 2014)
46 and taxonomically (Donaldson et al., 2017; Gordon et al., 2019), which in turn results in biased
47 conservation efforts (Gordon et al., 2019).

48 Community science (or “citizen science”) is increasingly used to study biodiversity because it
49 can often accomplish what conventional research cannot, namely the collection of long-term data
50 across large spatial extents (Chandler et al., 2017). It can also be more cost effective at larger
51 scales (Heigl et al., 2017), making it an appealing option for conservation initiatives with limited
52 funding. In this paper, we define the term “community science” as the general public’s unpaid
53 participation in biodiversity monitoring and data collection. Community science can take a
54 variety of forms, from undirected programs recording opportunistic observations made by
55 amateur naturalists (e.g. iNaturalist: Callaghan et al., 2020; eBird: Sullivan et al. 2014) to highly
56 skilled volunteers operating under strict protocols and coordinated by government agencies (e.g.
57 the Breeding Bird Survey (BBS); Hudson et al., 2017).

58 Although community science has proven to be a valuable resource, researchers may be reluctant
59 to turn to these data for conservation biology research due to real and perceived limitations. The
60 spatial and temporal scale of a community science project, along with scientific rigour and data
61 availability, are major factors in predicting whether the data from a community science project
62 are used in peer-reviewed literature (Theobald et al. 2015). Most data are concentrated around
63 populous cities and accessible areas such as parks and near roads (Geldmann et al., 2016; Soroye
64 et al., 2022) and are biased towards more charismatic species such as butterflies and birds

65 (Theobald et al., 2015). Community science is often regarded only as a source of baseline
66 surveillance data (Dickinson et al., 2010), and enlisting the public to help monitor sensitive
67 species can pose significant risks (Soroye et al., 2022). These patterns could be perpetuated into
68 the literature, compounding similar existing research biases (Donaldson et al., 2017).

69 Our primary goal with this evidence synthesis was to examine the patterns in community science
70 use to illustrate potential biodiversity research opportunities. Broadly, we explored how
71 community science data are being used in the peer-reviewed knowledge base, and how they
72 could be better leveraged to inform conservation. To accomplish this, we searched and collated
73 the peer-reviewed evidence base for articles that used community science to monitor terrestrial
74 biodiversity, to ask the following specific questions: (1) how does community science use vary
75 among taxonomic groups; (2) how does community science use vary among regions, and how
76 does this variation interact with taxonomic patterns and country wealth; and (3) what threats to
77 biodiversity are being addressed by research using community science? Though the availability
78 of community science data has already been examined elsewhere (Chandler et al., 2017;
79 Theobald et al., 2015), we build on this by investigating how community science data are used in
80 the peer-reviewed biodiversity literature.

81

82 2. Methods

83 We were interested in peer-reviewed articles that used community science to collect data on
84 terrestrial biodiversity. Our search methods were purposive, rather than systematic, as the goal
85 was to obtain a representative sample of the prevalence of community science data in the
86 published literature, rather than capture every article. We searched the academic databases ISI

87 Web of Science Core Collections (WoSCC) and Scopus in January 2019. Our search strings
88 were modified and refined iteratively through a scoping exercise which evaluated the sensitivity
89 of search terms and associated wildcards. Search terms were kept intentionally general to avoid
90 biasing our sample towards well-known community science projects (like the long-standing
91 North American Breeding Bird Survey).

92 Our search string for WoSCC was as follows:

93 TS=((Crowdsourcing OR "community-based participatory research" OR "public participation"
94 OR "participatory action research" OR "volunteer surveying" OR hunter OR naturalist OR atlas*
95 OR Amateur OR hobbyist citizen OR "citizen researcher" OR "individual citizen scientist" OR
96 collaborator OR "community researcher" OR contributor OR "lay knowledge holder" OR
97 "general public" OR participant OR student OR pupil OR uncredentialed OR "non-credentialed
98 researcher" OR nonacademic OR non-scientist OR volunteer) AND (ecolog* OR biodivers* OR
99 conservation) AND (monitor* OR manage* OR survey) AND (species)) NOT (Marine OR
100 restoration OR astron* OR medic*)

101 Our search string for Scopus was as follows:

102 TITLE-ABS-KEY ({community based participatory research} OR {community-based
103 participatory research} OR "public participation" OR hunter OR naturalist OR atlas* OR
104 amateur OR "citizen researcher" OR {individual citizen scientist} OR collaborator OR {lay
105 knowledge holder}) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (ecolog* OR biodivers* OR conservation)
106 AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (monitor* OR manage* OR survey OR conserv*) AND TITLE-
107 ABS-KEY (species) AND NOT TITLE-ABS-KEY (marine OR restoration OR astron* OR
108 medic* OR cancer)

109 English search terms were used to conduct all searches in both databases. No language, date, or
110 document type restrictions were applied during the search (i.e., if an abstract was in English but
111 the article was in a different language), but only English language literature was included during
112 the screening stage. Bibliographic databases were accessed using Carleton University's
113 institutional subscriptions (Appendix A).

114 Articles were screened at two stages (1) title and abstract, and (2) full-text, using pre-defined
115 inclusion criteria. To be included in the analysis, articles were required to meet all criteria:

- 116 (i) species were non-domesticated and had a terrestrial component to their lifecycle;
- 117 (ii) members of the public (i.e., volunteers, both experts and non-experts) participated in
118 the biodiversity monitoring and data collection; and
- 119 (iii) the biological data collected by volunteers were used in analyses.

120 We did not include articles that solely outlined practices for successful citizen science programs
121 or evaluated benefits to volunteers. In case of uncertainty, we screened the full text of the article
122 for inclusion. Only articles written in English were retained, which we acknowledge is a
123 limitation when examining regional patterns. Before independent screening began, a consistency
124 check between four reviewers using a random subset of 50 articles was undertaken. The results
125 of the consistency check were compared between reviewers, and all discrepancies were
126 discussed to understand why an inclusion/exclusion decision was made. Revisions to the
127 inclusion criteria were made as necessary.

128 We use the term 'article' to refer to an individual peer-reviewed document returned by our search,
129 and 'study' to refer to a distinct species-location-time combination contained within an article.

130 For data coding and extraction, a single article could contain multiple studies. For each study, we
131 extracted information related to the community science project name(s), the species for which

132 data were analyzed when included in the main body of the article, the geographic coverage at the
133 country level, the type of threats examined, and the biological and ecological responses
134 measured using community science data. For each article, we grouped the threats and responses
135 into categories based on Dickinson et al. (2010) (Appendix A; Table S1). We categorized species
136 as “threatened” if the authors stated that they were officially listed by a given conservation
137 authority (such as a federal agency or the IUCN) as being at risk or in decline, or if the authors
138 reported important population declines or other similar conservation concerns even if the species
139 was not listed by a conservation authority.

140 To investigate how community science use varies among regions according to wealth, we used a
141 linear model to examine the relationship between gross domestic product (GDP) per capita and
142 community science data use in the literature. We used UN GDP per capita in USD, averaged
143 between the years 1997 and 2019 inclusive for 194 countries (National Accounts Main
144 Aggregates Database, 2021). We excluded overseas departments and territories from this
145 analysis (e.g., French Guiana) as we could not always access GDP data for these locations.
146 Taiwan and China were grouped together as the UN GDP data did not distinguish between the
147 two countries. Data from Sudan and South Sudan were only available from 2008 – 2019.

148 The average GDP per capita was log transformed to better meet the assumptions of the linear
149 model; however, there was still evidence of a relationship between the variance and the mean.
150 Outliers were retained because the values were meaningful in this case (that is, GDP is inherently
151 skewed with extreme values). The relationship between log-GDP per capita and the number of
152 community science projects per country appeared to be linear.

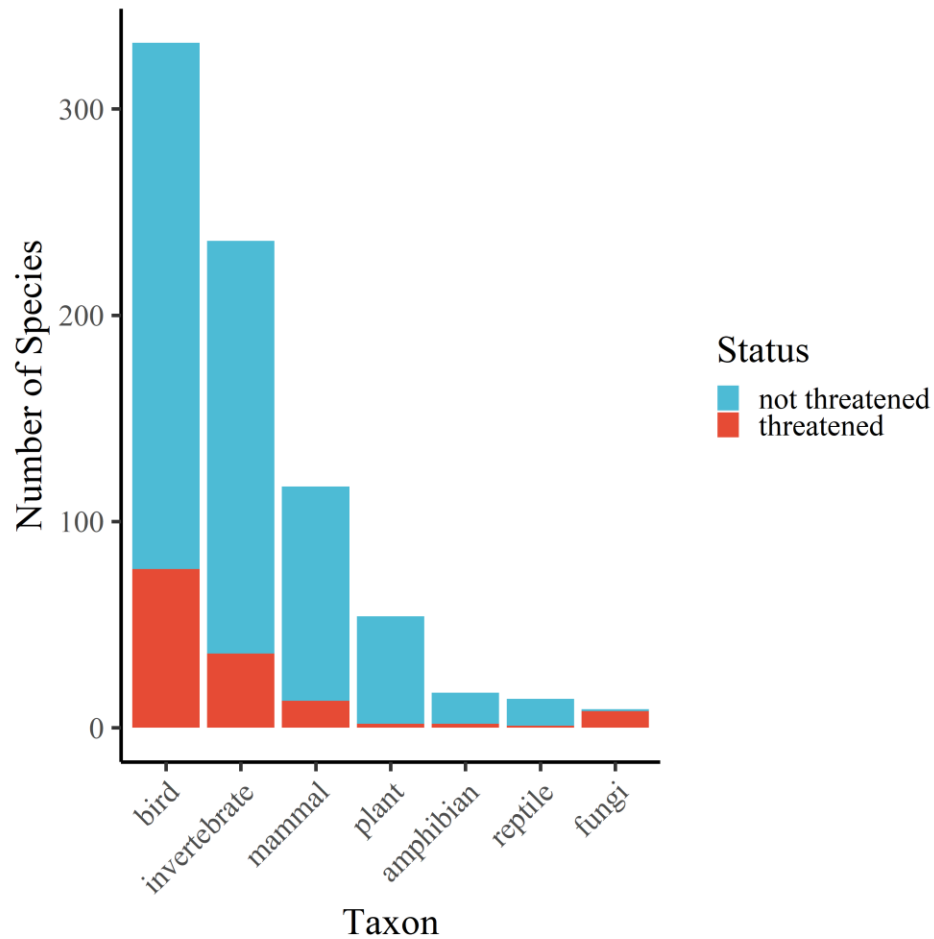
153 To further explore geographical patterns of community science data use in the literature, we
154 investigated the number of distinct community science projects in our sample by study location.

155 Not all community science projects are well-suited or well-known enough to researchers for
156 inclusion in a peer-reviewed publication. Some community science projects have been running
157 for decades and vetted extensively, making them well-established sources of scientific data (e.g.
158 the Breeding Bird Survey: Hudson et al. 2017), while newer and less structured programs can be
159 of less certain quality (e.g., Kamp et al. 2016). Therefore, we were interested in gaining insight
160 into whether more publications in each country correlated with a wider variety of data sources
161 being used (within our sample), or whether the same established projects were being used
162 repeatedly.

163 3. Results

164 **3.1. Taxonomic patterns of community science data use in the literature**

165 Across all 334 articles in our corpus, we found community science data were used to examine
166 739 species. Birds were the most prevalent taxon, with both the greatest number of articles
167 (44.6%) that used community science data (Appendix A; Fig. S1), as well as the most individual
168 species examined using these data (Fig. 1). Invertebrates were the second-most prevalent taxon,
169 with 96 articles covering 70 unique families across 26 countries. Community science data on
170 reptiles, amphibians and fungi were studied infrequently in our sample of the literature. Across
171 taxa, species were less likely to be categorized as “threatened”, except for fungi.



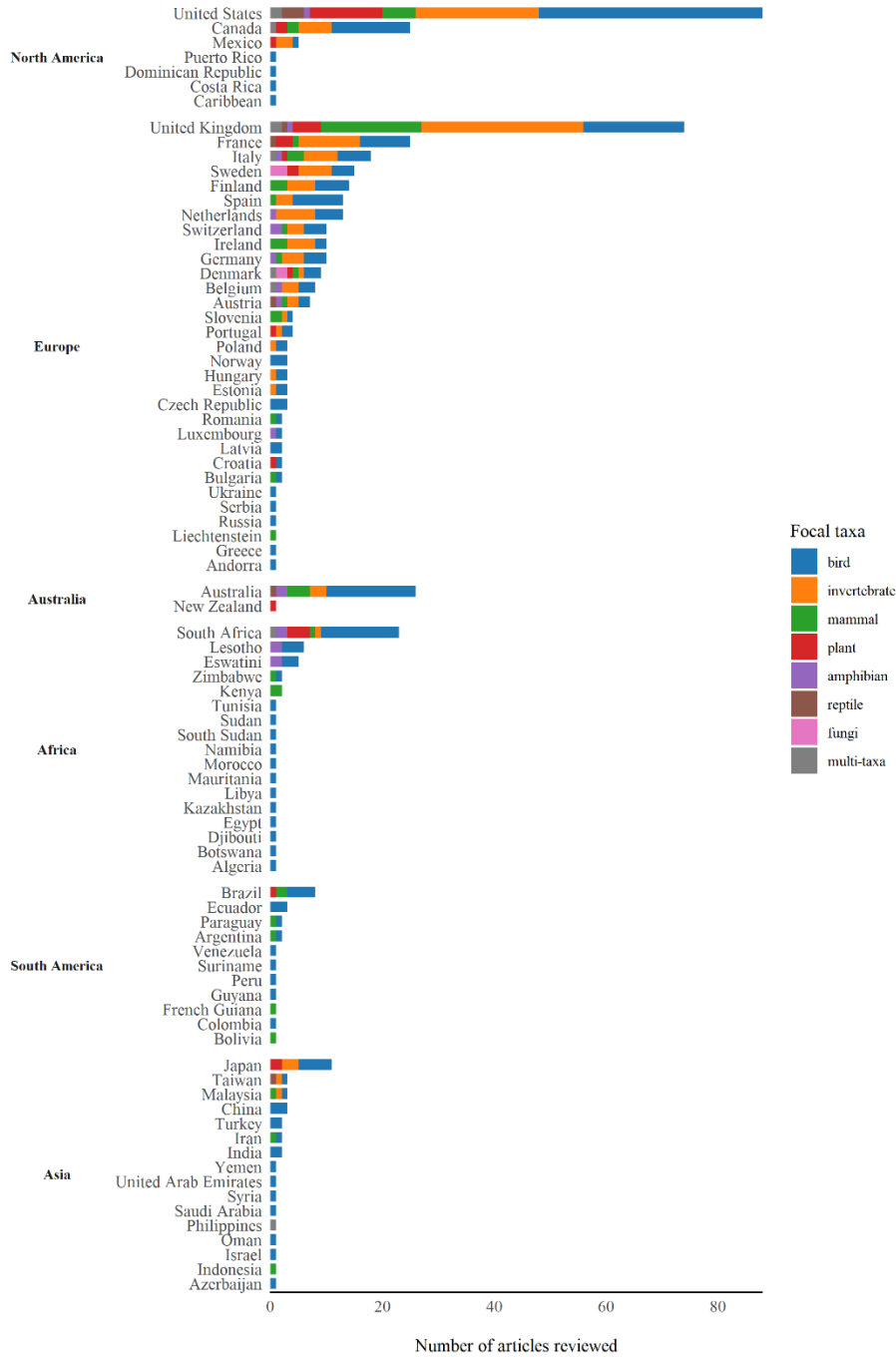
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173 Figure 1. Number of unique species in each taxonomic group studied in the selection of articles
174 captured by the literature review. Red represents the number of species that are described as
175 “threatened” by the authors of the article, either due to population declines or other similar
176 conservation concerns, or because they are officially listed under a given conservation authority
177 (such as a federal agency or the IUCN) as being at risk or in decline. Species coded in blue were
178 not reported to be in decline or to be listed by a conservation authority by the authors.

179 **3.2. Geographic patterns of community science data use in the literature**

180 In our sample, the articles making use of community science for biodiversity monitoring spanned
181 85 countries, with most located in the United Kingdom and the United States (Fig. 2). We found

182 evidence of a log-linear relationship between country gross domestic product (GDP) per capita
183 and the number of publications making use of community science data ($\beta = 1.936$, $p < 0.0001$, R^2
184 $= 0.108$; Appendix B; Fig. S2). However, only a small proportion of the variation was explained
185 by this relationship, and there are likely other factors at play that are unrelated to GDP.



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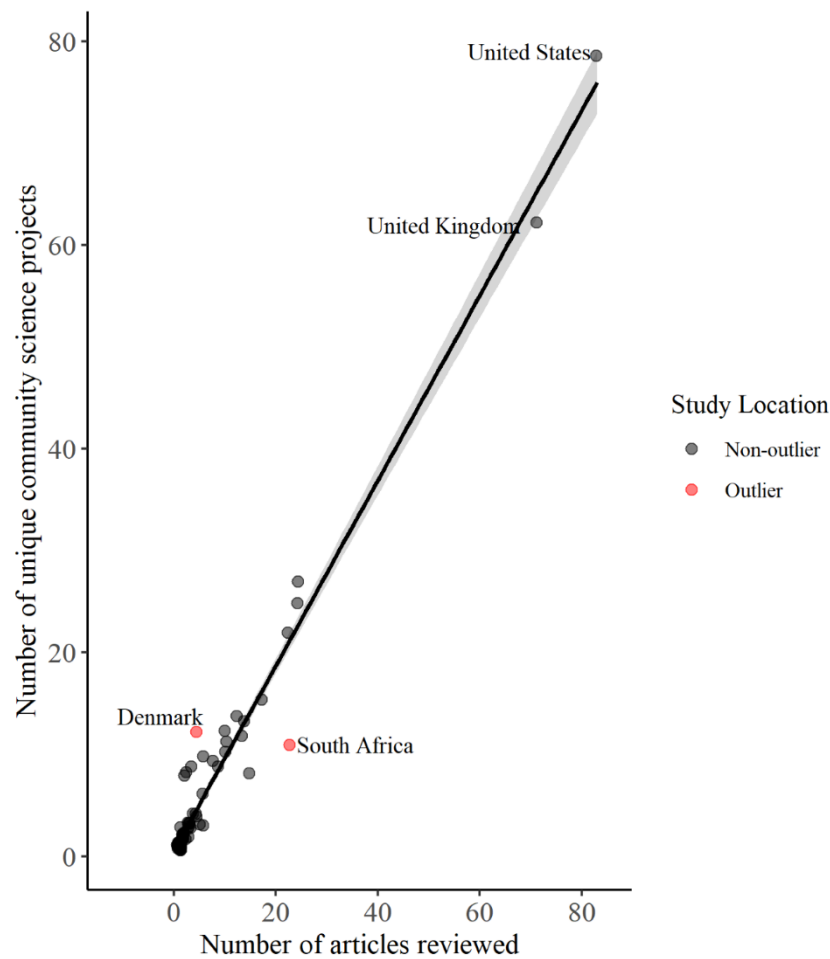
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188 Figure 2. Number of articles in which biodiversity data were collected through community

189 science, and the taxonomic breakdown of those articles, for each country where data were

190 collected. “Multi-taxa” denotes an article or project that includes multiple taxonomic groups
191 within a single article.

192 We found an almost 1:1 linear relationship between the number of reviewed articles conducted in
193 each country and the total number of distinct community science projects that were used in
194 publications in each country ($\beta = 0.91$, $R^2 = 0.96$, $p = 3.36e-61$, Fig. 3; see also Appendix B; Fig.
195 S3 for patterns in residuals). That is, our sample suggests that the more publications using
196 community science data in a country, the more likely these publications draw data from a breadth
197 of available community science projects. We note that this is an underestimate of the number of
198 actual community science projects in each country, given that we only included the projects
199 found in our sample of peer-reviewed articles. Two of the more distinct outliers were Denmark
200 and South Africa. Publications studying biodiversity in Denmark drew on a higher number of
201 community science projects than expected based on the number of publications. In contrast,
202 fewer distinct community science projects were used in South Africa than in Denmark, despite
203 the former having more than double the number of community science publications (Fig. 3). We
204 investigate these patterns further in Box 1.



205

206 Figure 3. Linear relationship between the number of unique community science projects used in
207 the scientific literature to monitor biodiversity in each country and the number of articles based
208 in each country ($\beta = 0.91$, $R^2 = 0.96$, $p = 3.36e-61$). Data did not conform to normality
209 assumptions, and were deliberately left untransformed, to examine patterns in residuals (see
210 Appendix B; Fig. S3 for details). Note that we urge caution in interpreting between the bulk of
211 points and the extreme values for the United States and the United Kingdom.

212

213 BOX 1. How community science is being used in the literature in Denmark and South Africa

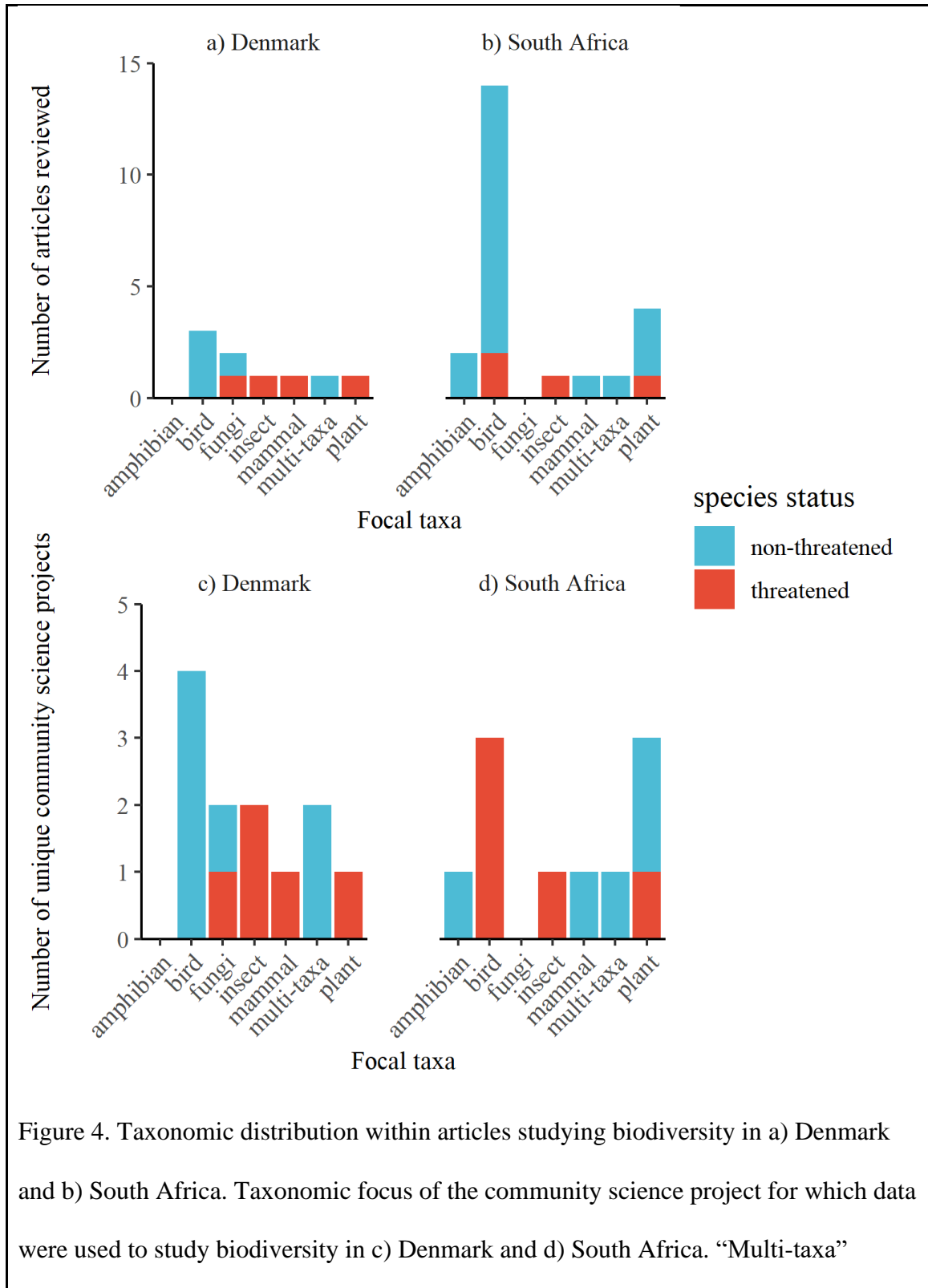


Figure 4. Taxonomic distribution within articles studying biodiversity in a) Denmark and b) South Africa. Taxonomic focus of the community science project for which data were used to study biodiversity in c) Denmark and d) South Africa. “Multi-taxa”

denotes multiple taxonomic groups within a single article. A species status was noted as of conservation concern if it was characterized by the authors as such, inclusive of officially listed species and species demonstrating general decline that are not yet listed.

To gain insight into how the use of community science data in the literature can vary with the location of study, we examined the taxonomic distribution within the reviewed articles for two study locations with opposing tendencies: Denmark and South Africa (Fig. 3). Studies located in Denmark drew on a higher variety of community science projects than expected given the number of articles reviewed, while studies located in South Africa drew on a relatively low number of total community science projects given the high number of articles that studied South African biodiversity. Both studies located in Denmark and South Africa relied heavily on structured community science datasets: those in Denmark drew on a wide variety of atlases (general censuses of species' distributions), and South African data stem largely from the South African Bird Atlas Project (SABAP), which was used for 14 of 23 total articles, and all but one of the studies on avian biodiversity.

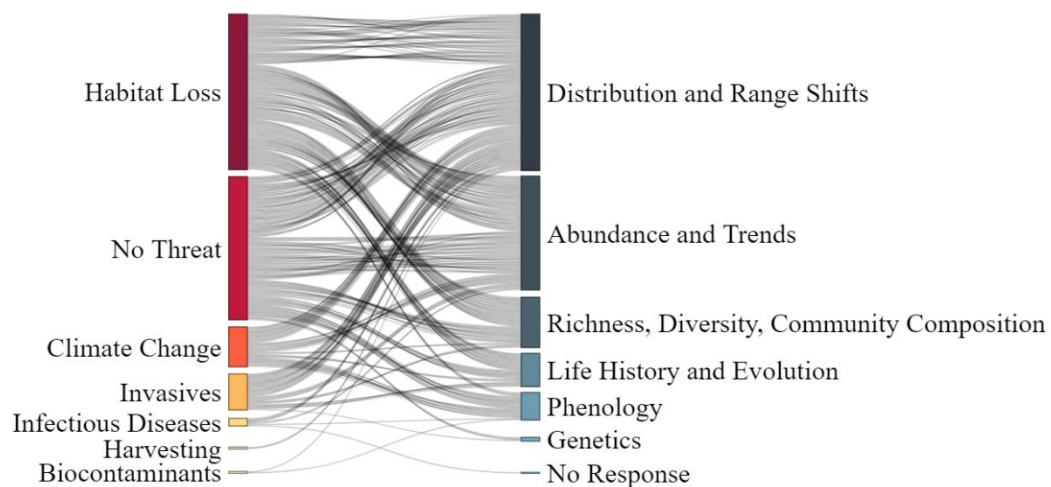
In both countries, the types of projects favoured in our sample support the idea that baseline “high-quality” data from structured protocols, such as atlases and government-sponsored projects like SABAP and the BBS, are more readily incorporated into research than noisier datasets (Bayraktarov et al., 2019). This underscores the relevance of community science data for research and long-term monitoring in poorer countries (Callaghan et al., 2020), but also the usefulness of long-term monitoring projects for a

greater variety of taxa in wealthier countries like Denmark. In any context, research can benefit from long-term community monitoring data only if the data are findable, accessible, and understandable (Theobald et al., 2015; Roche et al., 2021).

214

215 3.3. Conservation and environmental challenges addressed using community science in the 216 literature

217 Sixty-three articles (approximately 18%) included at least one species that was considered of
218 conservation concern, either described as “declining” by the authors or designated as
219 “threatened”, “endangered” or a similar classification by a recognized conservation authority
220 (Fig. 1). Most of these species were birds and invertebrates, reflecting the overall taxonomic
221 pattern in our sample of the literature. The most common response metrics using community
222 science data were distribution and range shifts, and abundance and/or trends (Fig. 5). A large
223 proportion of articles (38%; n=127) from our literature search did not look at any specific threat
224 to biodiversity. Articles that did examine a threat mainly focused on habitat loss, change or
225 fragmentation (41.9%, n = 140).



226

227 Figure 5. Type of threat examined, and the biological and ecological responses of biodiversity
228 measured using community science data in the articles found in the literature search. Larger and
229 darker rectangles represent a greater number of articles examining a given threat or response.

230

231 4. Discussion

232 Here we examined the patterns in community science data use in the published, peer-reviewed
233 literature. We found that, in general, in a given location, more publications meant that a wider
234 variety of projects were being used, but there were instances where certain countries were
235 relying heavily on one well-vetted dataset. Additionally, the wealth of a country (as expressed by
236 GDP per capita) explained very little of the variation in the use of community science data in
237 publications. While the availability of data seemed to translate into more research on certain
238 taxonomic groups such as birds and invertebrates, community science data are underutilized for
239 other groups such as reptiles and amphibians, following the trends of conventional research
240 biases (Donaldson et al., 2017). Finally, the use of community science to research at-risk species
241 remains limited, and the links to specific threats are infrequently examined using these data.

242 These results support previous assertions that the uptake of community science data in the
243 literature is driven in part by the range of the species and availability of data. Theobald et al.
244 (2015) found that, although invertebrates are under-sampled compared to their overall abundance
245 on earth, they are still the target of the greatest proportion of existing community science
246 projects. Our results demonstrate that in this case, this greater data availability for invertebrates
247 and birds translates into greater use in the published literature as well (Fig. 1). Although
248 Theobald et al. (2015) found that birds had fewer community science projects dedicated to them

249 than invertebrates, we found that the former were the subject of study more frequently than the
250 latter. This discrepancy is understandable, given that birdwatching generates extensive data
251 (Cordell & Herbert, 2002). Birds may also be more detectable compared to other taxonomic
252 groups, given that they are often brightly coloured, highly vocal, and occupy a wide range of
253 human-dominated habitats. These factors may play a role in the ability to monitor these species
254 using community science efforts. Despite birds having fewer overall community science projects
255 than invertebrates, there are disproportionately more projects collecting data on birds compared
256 to the proportion of earth's species that they represent (Theobald et al., 2015), and several of
257 these are long-term monitoring programs that have existed for decades (e.g. The Breeding Bird
258 Survey: Hudson et al. 2017) or even over a century (e.g. the Christmas Bird Count: Butcher
259 1990).

260 More general biases in conservation action, which in theory is informed by biodiversity
261 monitoring research, may also explain why birds were the subject of study more frequently than
262 invertebrates. Like birds, reptiles and amphibians also have a disproportionately greater number
263 of community science projects dedicated to them compared to their relative abundance on earth
264 (Theobald et al., 2015). However, when it comes to uptake in the literature, we find that
265 publications making use of community science to monitor reptiles and amphibians are limited
266 (Fig. 1), instead reflecting more conventional taxonomic biases in conservation research
267 (Donaldson et al., 2017; Theobald et al., 2015). These biases are important to acknowledge and
268 examine, as they are often propagated into conservation action and spending (Gordon et al.,
269 2019).

270 Community science data are used for birds because they are widely available, but likely also
271 because community science is often well-suited to monitoring such wide-ranging species.

272 Community science is particularly used for large-scale monitoring (Chandler et al., 2017), and
273 these large-scale projects are more likely to be used in published literature than smaller projects
274 (Theobald et al., 2015). In addition to taxonomic biases, the relative lack of research on reptiles
275 and amphibians may also be because such taxa tend not to be as wide ranging as birds or
276 mammals, and therefore researchers do not need to rely on community science datasets in the
277 same way they would for birds. This suggests that researchers turn to community science out of
278 necessity; migratory birds can travel tens of thousands of kilometers throughout their annual
279 cycle, making them challenging to monitor without relying on crowdsourced data.

280 Conservation research biases and conservation outreach usually disproportionately favour
281 mammals (Donaldson et al., 2017), and research suggests that the proportion of mammal
282 community science data reflects conventional researcher biases (Theobald et al., 2015). In our
283 sample, mammals were less studied than birds and insects (Figure 1). This would imply that
284 community science data are either not as well-suited for research on mammals as it is for birds,
285 or that there is untapped potential for these data to be used in mammal conservation research.

286 The cause of the geographic patterns of community science use found in our review are difficult
287 to discern; they could be merely a reflection of publication rates varying among countries, or
288 English language bias, but also the availability of community science data, as suggested by
289 Theobald et al. (2015), which is beyond the scope of this study. Nonetheless, these geographic
290 patterns are interesting for several reasons. It could be that developing countries rely more on
291 community efforts to monitor biodiversity given sparse funding for professional monitoring. In
292 contrast, while more cost-efficient at larger scales (Heigl et al., 2017), community science
293 programs are certainly not free, and issues with governance and safety could limit the persistence
294 of these projects (Pocock et al., 2019). Additionally, community scientists in wealthier countries

295 may have more free time at their disposal to contribute to community science projects, thus
296 generating more data available to be used in research and consequently more publications.

297 For endangered species, community science projects must contend with special considerations
298 about project design, volunteer engagement, and open-data practices, where the safety of
299 imperiled species is of particular concern (Lindenmayer and Scheele 2017; Lennox et al. 2020).

300 Common species are also inherently easier to monitor and study than those that are rare. It is
301 therefore unsurprising that the bulk of the literature in our sample examines species that are not
302 at risk (Fig. 1). The exception here was with fungi, almost all of which were described as at risk
303 or declining. Given the difficulty detecting and identifying species of fungi, and the relative lack
304 of interest in them compared to other taxa, it is possible only the most interesting and/or
305 threatened species are reported and researched.

306 Our review also highlighted that community science efforts were largely used to measure
307 abundance, trends, distributions, and range shifts. This finding was expected given the ability of
308 community science to provide the extensive data necessary for studying these topics (Dickinson
309 et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2022; Theobald et al., 2015). However, for similar reasons, community
310 science data can be well suited to measuring changes in phenology (Binley et al., 2021), yet we
311 found limited evidence of this application in our sample of the literature. Other responses such as
312 collecting genetic samples may simply be limited because this is a novel and developing field
313 (Granroth-Wilding et al., 2017).

314 Surprisingly, relatively few studies used community science data to examine the effects of
315 climate change and invasive species on biodiversity. Given that these are threats that often occur
316 at broad spatial scales, it would be advantageous to use community science to measure their
317 impacts (Binley et al., 2021). However, community science may not be the best option for

318 measuring threats of direct exploitation. Community science is inherently open and sharing the
319 location of these species may put them at greater risk (Tulloch et al., 2018). Safeguards that
320 protect the location of at-risk species and the well-being of wildlife populations, as well as the
321 safety of the people observing these species, can be put in place for monitoring sensitive species
322 with community science initiatives (Soroye et al., 2022).

323 We also recognize a gap whereby community science could be used more often to examine
324 threats. Although most community science programs are often better suited for baseline
325 surveillance monitoring (Dickinson et al., 2010), these data can still be used to test hypotheses
326 (Yoccoz et al., 2001). Community science programs are frequently designed with a particular
327 goal in mind, such as measuring population trends (e.g., the Breeding Bird Survey; Hudson et al.
328 2017), changes in phenology (e.g., Plant Watch; Gonsamo, Chen, and Wu 2013), or monitoring a
329 specific threat (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 2014). Often, the proponents of such programs are under
330 the impression that these data are then used in scientific research, which unfortunately is not
331 always the case (Theobald et al. 2015). Given the urgency of the biodiversity crisis, we expected
332 that community science projects would be used more in the literature to investigate specific
333 threats and their impacts on biodiversity (Buxton et al., 2021). Thus, it appears that conservation
334 research is not making full use of community science data to link known threats with biological
335 and ecological responses, despite the evident potential to do so. This unfortunately may reflect a
336 general pattern in the literature, whereby research effort often neglects actionable and high-
337 priority questions (Buxton et al., 2021). Although we acknowledge that our evidence synthesis
338 examines only a representative sample of the literature, rather than systematically reviewing it,
339 we believe there is room for more applied research using community science to address threats to
340 biodiversity, particularly those operating at larger scales. Indeed, one of the strengths of

341 community science is that conservation practitioners and researchers often have these data
342 readily available, circumventing the time and expense needed to collect further information
343 needed to answer pressing questions when it is not always warranted to do so.

344 Community science is a growing source of global biodiversity data that is particularly useful for
345 covering large spatial and temporal extents, and is generally more easily available and accessible
346 than other data sources, such as grey literature or “file-drawer” data (Haddaway & Bayliss,
347 2015). Our results suggest that there is untapped potential for community science data use, in
348 examining broader sets of taxa, and in tracking the effects of biodiversity threats such as climate
349 change and invasive species. Our results also suggest that key lessons can be learned from
350 certain jurisdictions that make extensive use of community science data for biodiversity
351 monitoring. While inclusion in peer-reviewed publications may not be the ultimate goal of
352 community science projects (nor necessarily should it be), community science project managers
353 can often be under the impression that their work is being used in the literature, even if this is not
354 necessarily the case (Theobald et al., 2015), and there are a multitude of applications that are
355 often underutilized (Binley et al., 2021). Future interdisciplinary research could examine the
356 social, political, and economic conditions necessary for successfully implementing a wide
357 variety of community science programs in different countries, and the associated likelihood of
358 community science data uptake within peer-reviewed literature and beyond.

359

360 5. Glossary

361 Community science data: Data collected through public participation in surveys and monitoring.
362 Participants can be experts or novices, and data collection protocols can be unstructured (fully

363 opportunistic), semi-structured (largely opportunistic but including the collection of covariate
364 data) or structured (following a defined protocol). Participants are volunteers and are not paid.

365

366 6. Acknowledgements:

367 We would like to thank the many talented and dedicated community scientists that make our
368 research possible.

369

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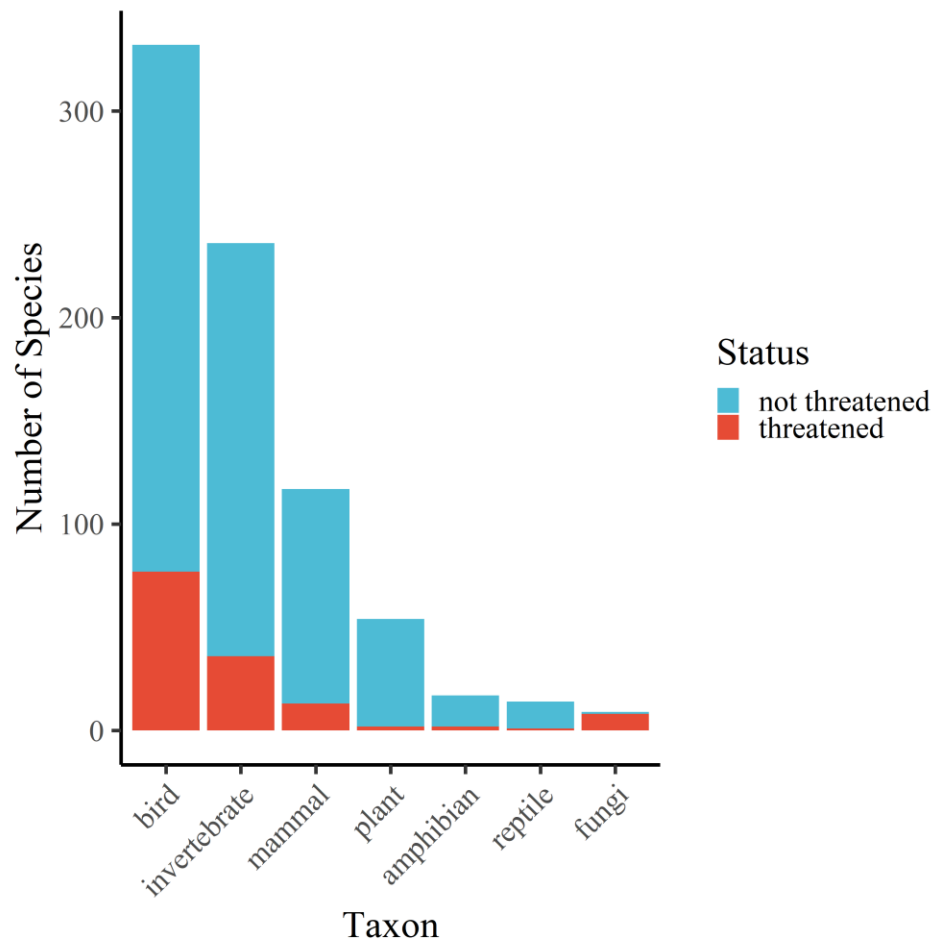
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511 8. Tables and Figures

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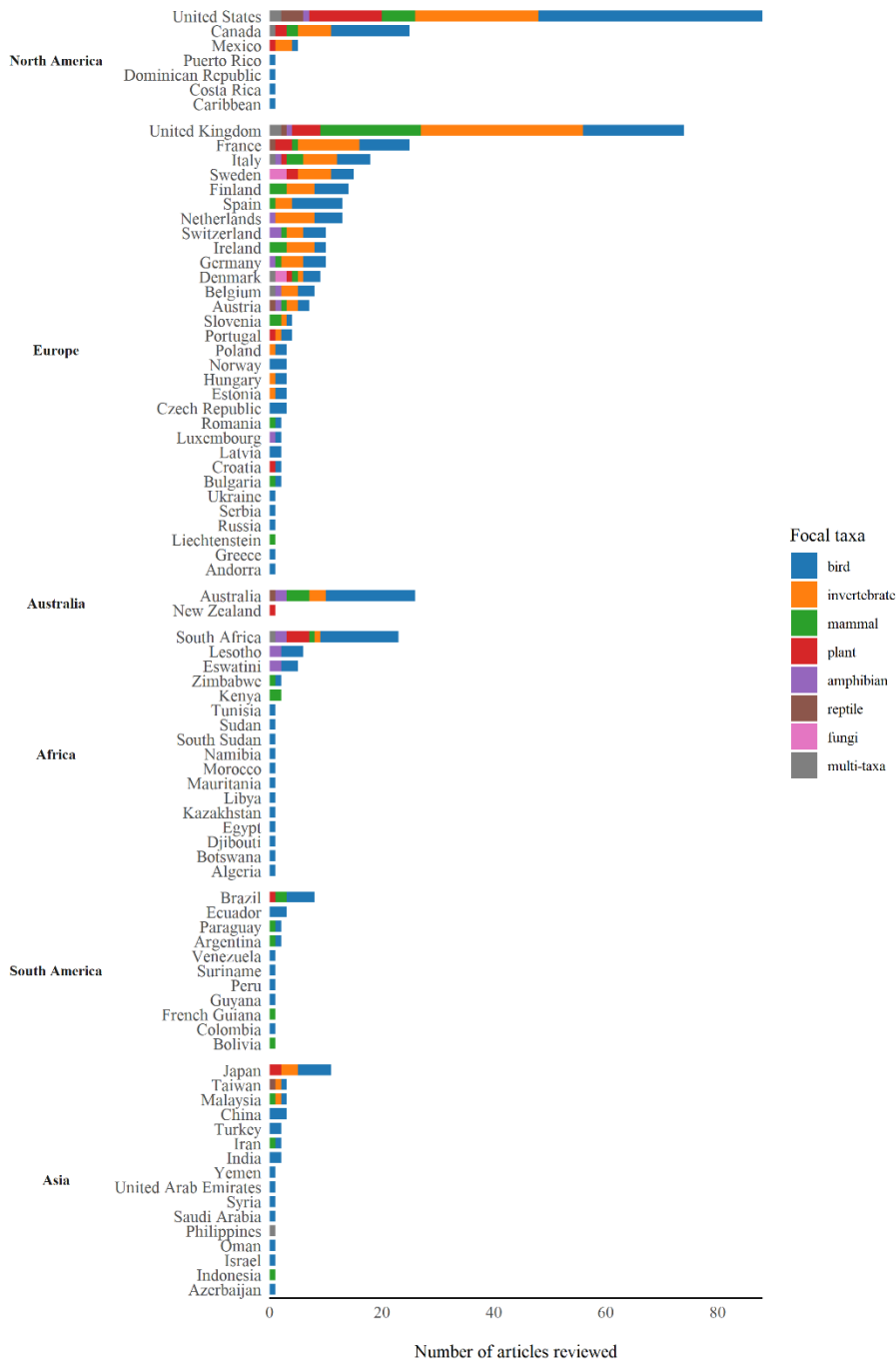
514 Figure 1. Number of unique species in each taxonomic group studied in the selection of articles
515 captured by the literature review. Red represents the number of species that are described as
516 “threatened” by the authors of the article, either due to population declines or other similar
517 conservation concerns, or because they are officially listed under a given conservation authority
518 (such as a federal agency or the IUCN) as being at risk or in decline. Species coded in blue were
519 not reported to be in decline or to be listed by a conservation authority by the authors.

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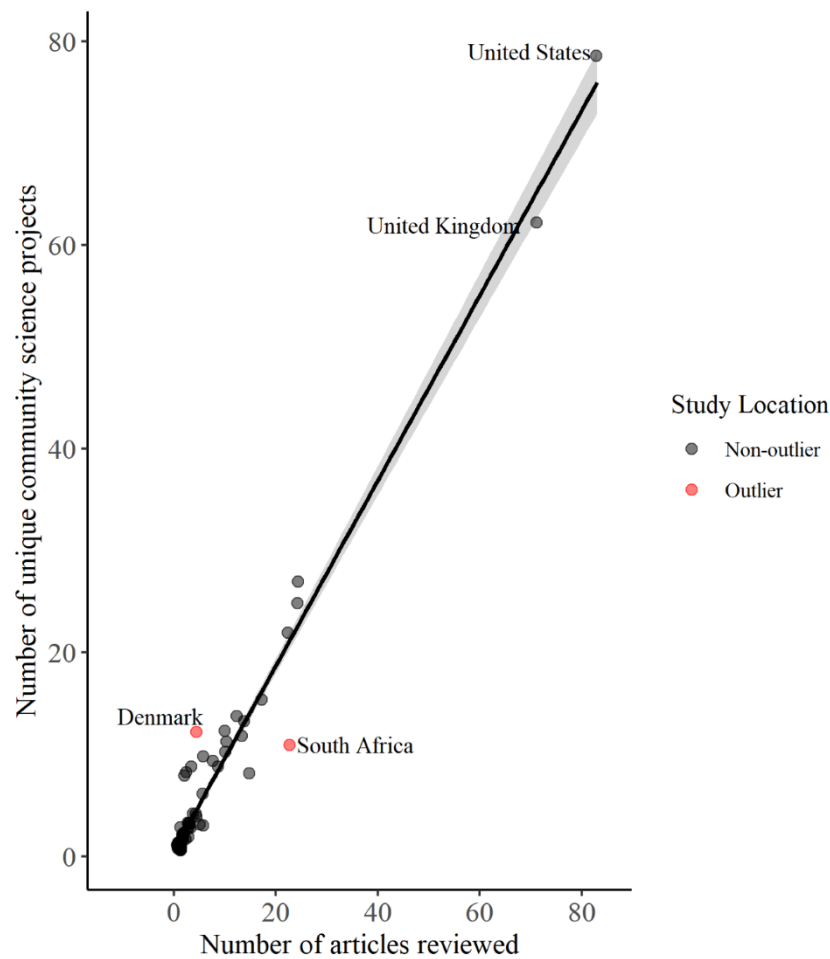


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526 Figure 2. Number of articles in which biodiversity data were collected through community
527 science, and the taxonomic breakdown of those articles, for each country where data were
528 collected. “Multi-taxa” denotes an article or project that includes multiple taxonomic groups
529 within a single article.

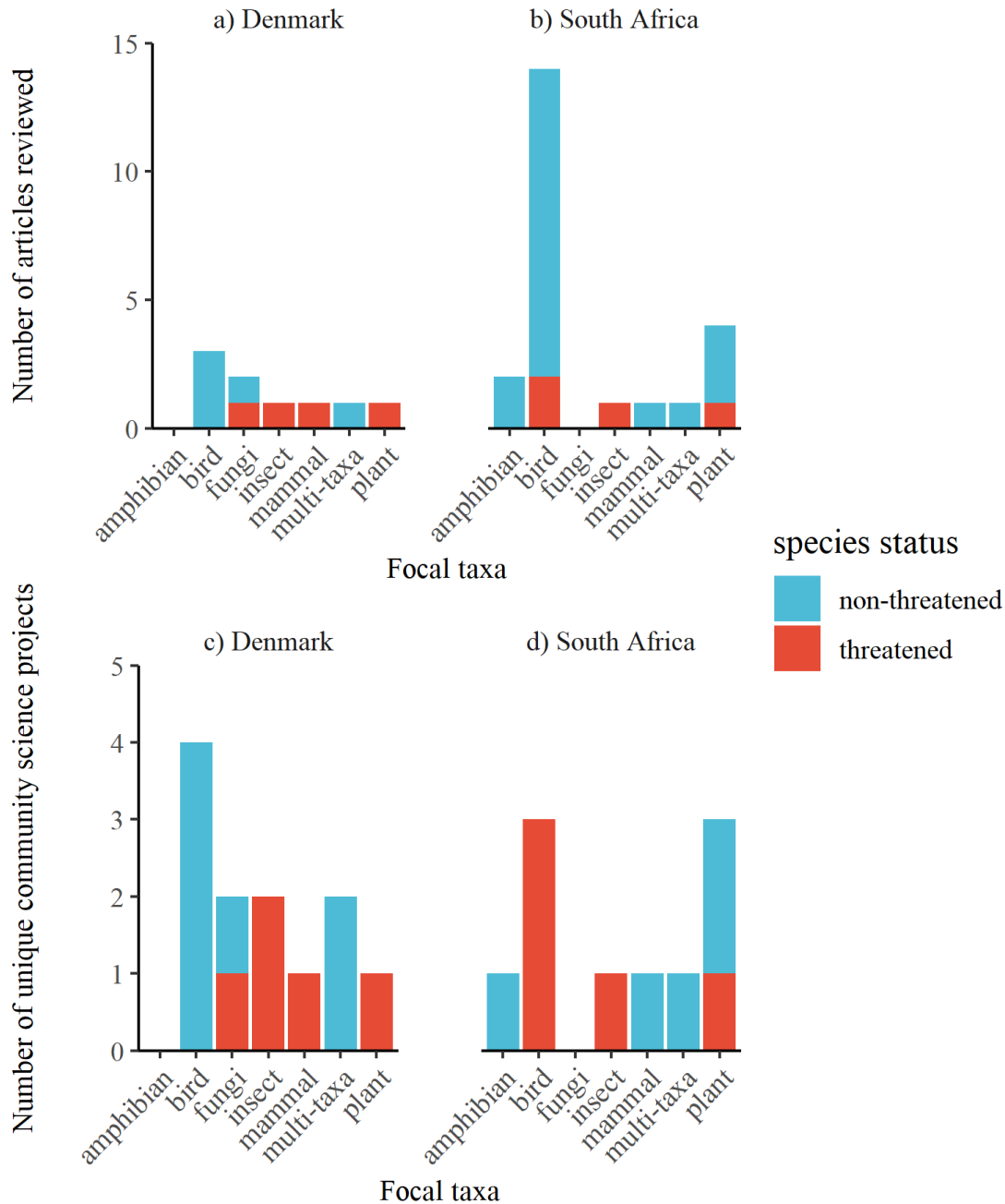
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532 Figure 3. Linear relationship between the number of unique community science projects used in
533 the scientific literature to monitor biodiversity in each country and the number of articles based
534 in each country ($\beta = 0.91$, $R^2 = 0.96$, $p = 3.36e-61$). Data did not conform to normality
535 assumptions, and were deliberately left untransformed, to examine patterns in residuals (see
536 Appendix B; Fig. S3 for details). Note that we urge caution in interpreting between the bulk of
537 points and the extreme values for the United States and the United Kingdom.

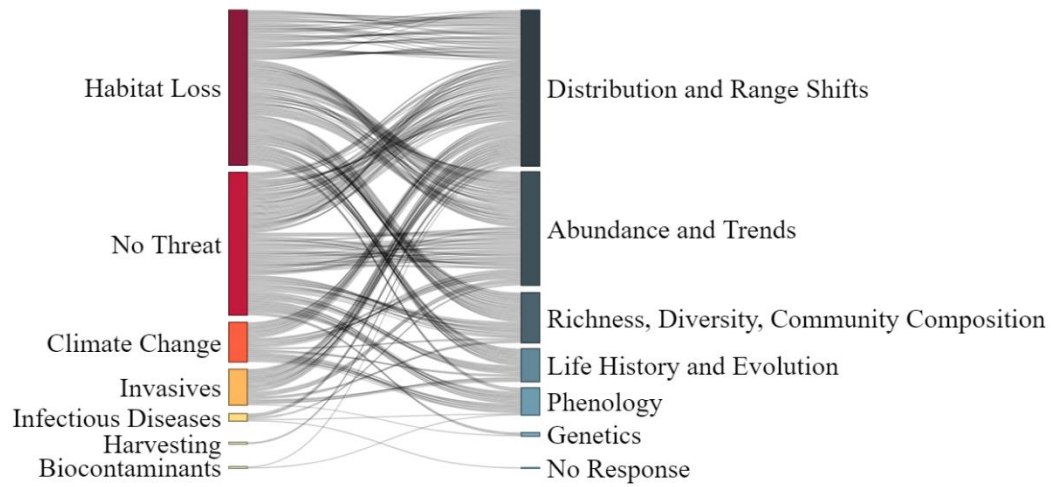
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540 Figure 4. Taxonomic distribution within articles studying biodiversity in a) Denmark and b)
 541 South Africa. Taxonomic focus of the community science project for which data were used to
 542 study biodiversity in c) Denmark and d) South Africa. “Multi-taxa” denotes multiple taxonomic
 543 groups within a single article. A species status was noted as of conservation concern if it was
 544 characterized by the authors as such, inclusive of officially listed species and species
 545 demonstrating general decline that are not yet listed.

546



547

548 Figure 5. Type of threat examined, and the biological and ecological responses of biodiversity
549 measured using community science data in the articles found in the literature search. Larger and
550 darker rectangles represent a greater number of articles examining a given threat or response.

551