

1 **Towards a global terrestrial species monitoring program**

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58 Abstract

59 The Convention on Biological Diversity's strategic plan lays out five goals: "(A)
60 address the underlying causes of biodiversity loss by mainstreaming biodiversity
61 across government and society; (B) reduce the direct pressures on biodiversity
62 and promote sustainable use; (C) improve the status of biodiversity by
63 safeguarding ecosystems, species and genetic diversity; (D) enhance the benefits
64 to all from biodiversity and ecosystem services; (E) enhance implementation
65 through participatory planning, knowledge management and capacity building."
66 To meet and inform on the progress towards these goals, a globally coordinated
67 approach is needed for biodiversity monitoring that is linked to environmental data
68 and covers all biogeographic regions. During a series of workshops and expert
69 discussions, we identified nine requirements that we believe are necessary for
70 developing and implementing such a global terrestrial species monitoring
71 program. The program needs to design and implement an integrated information
72 chain from monitoring to policy reporting, to create and implement minimal data
73 standards and common monitoring protocols to be able to inform Essential
74 Biodiversity Variables (EBVs), and to develop and optimize semantics and
75 ontologies for data interoperability and modelling. In order to achieve this, the
76 program needs to coordinate diverse but complementary local nodes and
77 partnerships. In addition, capacities need to be built for technical tasks, and new
78 monitoring technologies need to be integrated. Finally, a global monitoring
79 program needs to facilitate and secure funding for the collection of long-term data
80 and to detect and fill gaps in under-observed regions and taxa. The
81 accomplishment of these nine requirements is essential in order to ensure data is
82 comprehensive, to develop robust models, and to monitor biodiversity trends over
83 large scales. A global terrestrial species monitoring program will enable
84 researchers and policymakers to better understand the status and trends of
85 biodiversity.

86

87 **Keywords:** Convention on Biological Diversity; Essential Biodiversity Variable; Group
88 of Earth Observation Biodiversity Observation Network; GEO System of Systems;
89 modelling framework; policy support

90

91 Abbreviations¹

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¹ BON = Biodiversity Observation Network, LTER = Long-term Ecological Research (<http://www.lternet.edu/>), GBIF = Global Biodiversity Information Facility, CBMP = Circumpolar Biodiversity Monitoring Program, BISE = Biodiversity Information System for Europe (<http://biodiversity.europa.eu/>), PPBIO = Programa de Pesquisa em Biodiversidade (<http://ppbio.inpa.gov.br/en/home>), TEAM = Tropical Ecology & Assessment Monitoring network (<http://www.teamnetwork.org/>), NEON = National Ecological Observatory Network (<http://www.neoninc.org/>), IPBES = the Intergovernmental Panel for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services, EPBRS = the European Platform for Biodiversity Research Strategy, IUCN = International Union for Conservation of Nature, GEOSS = Group of Earth Observation System of Systems, GEO BON = Group of Earth Observation Biodiversity Observation Network, EBV = Essential Biodiversity Variables, GEO = Group of Earth Observation; IPBES = Intergovernmental Panel for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services, CBD = Convention on Biological Diversity, CMS = Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of wild animals, UNEP = United Nations Environment Programme

93 **Introduction**

94 The Convention on Biological Diversity's (CBD's) Strategic Plan for
95 Biodiversity 2011–2020 envisages that “by 2050, biodiversity is valued, conserved,
96 restored and wisely used, maintaining ecosystem services, sustaining a healthy
97 planet and delivering benefits essential for all people”. Although 193 parties have
98 adopted these goals, there is little infrastructure in place to collect the biodiversity
99 information necessary to monitor progress towards the objectives of the Strategic
100 Plan for Biodiversity (<http://www.cbd.int/sp/targets/>). Current international
101 conservation policy requires biodiversity data to be current, reliable, comparable
102 among sites, relevant, and understandable, as is becoming obvious from the work
103 plan adopted by the Intergovernmental Panel for Biodiversity and Ecosystem
104 Services (IPBES: www.ipbes.net/; <http://tinyurl.com/ohdnknq>) and from recent
105 assessments of the international biodiversity targets (Butchart et al. 2010; Tittensor et
106 al. 2014). Coordinated large-scale biodiversity monitoring linked to environmental
107 data is needed for a comprehensive Global Observation Network that can meet the
108 five strategic goals of the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity and its 20 accompanying
109 Aichi Targets for 2020. This is the main motivation of the biodiversity axes of the
110 Global Earth Observation System of Systems (GEOSS) (Christian 2005), which
111 includes the Group of Earth Observation's Biodiversity Observation Network of the
112 (GEO BON; Scholes et al. 2012).

113 The ultimate goal of a global biodiversity monitoring network is the timely
114 delivery of adequate and defensible biodiversity data to inform conservation policy,
115 using robust indicators to demonstrate the state of biodiversity, pressures on it, and
116 responses to those pressures (Chiarucci et al. 2011). Biodiversity can be quantified
117 at different levels of biological organization (i.e. from the molecular to the ecosystem
118 level), but species diversity and abundance still represent the most intuitive and
119 widely used measures of biodiversity (Butchart et al. 2010; Colwell & Coddington
120 1994; Tittensor et al. 2014). That is because these two measures are both ecological
121 and evolutionary measures and strongly positively correlated with other levels of
122 biodiversity organization, such as genetic diversity and ecosystem functioning
123 (Pereira & Cooper 2006).

124 Any local monitoring program should acknowledge that monitoring data need
125 to be collated at different scales, including the global scale, to be able to inform about
126 trends, status and changes of biodiversity and to have a representative overview of
127 environmental gradients in different areas of the world and for all taxonomic groups
128 (Collen et al. 2011). For these purposes, monitoring standards would need to be
129 followed and data harmonization is needed to allow easy data collation from different
130 data sources. Aggregation is important because changes in individual species or
131 sites are often only symptoms of regional or global changes, while a global
132 monitoring scheme needs to consider the larger context (Collen et al. 2011). GEO
133 BON has adopted these goals (Scholes et al. 2012) and has established an
134 international group of experts to develop a global monitoring network. Within this
135 initiative, one of the working groups of GEO BON aims to develop a global terrestrial
136 species monitoring program (Pereira et al. 2010a).

137 Monitoring programs should be aware that data need to be condensed into
138 summaries and indicators that are understandable by multiple user groups and useful
139 for policy development (e.g. the Intergovernmental Panel for Biodiversity and
140 Ecosystem Services (IPBES), the European Platform for Biodiversity Research
141 Strategy (EPBRS), the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), the United Nations
142 Environment Programme (UNEP), etc.), but also made available to research to
143 address conservation questions across geographic and temporal scales (Magnusson
144 et al. 2013; Henle et al. 2014).

145 GEO BON is closely cooperating with regional biodiversity observation
146 networks (i.e. Arctic BON, EU BON, Asia-Pacific BON) to develop a framework to
147 form a basis for global biodiversity monitoring focused on a set of ecologically
148 relevant variables known as Essential Biodiversity Variables (EBVs) (Pereira et al.
149 2013). These EBVs act as an intermediate, integrative layer between indicators and
150 raw biodiversity data. They allow for the averaging of trends of multiple species
151 across multiple locations, and their measurement captures ongoing changes in the
152 status of biodiversity. The EBVs can serve as a framework for biodiversity data
153 integration by identifying how variables should be sampled and measured, by helping
154 observation communities harmonize monitoring efforts, and by providing useful
155 summary statistics of changes in biodiversity (Pereira et al. 2013).

156 One motivation for pursuing the EBV framework is to align disparate
157 monitoring efforts with a community-derived set of priority measures. By identifying
158 which variables should be monitored and providing the necessary guidelines for
159 sampling and data recording, the EBVs are the first step in setting a framework for
160 biodiversity data integration and modelling. This is of particular importance, as we
161 currently lack a comprehensive understanding of biodiversity responses to change,
162 especially at global scales (Lenoir et al. 2010; Pereira et al. 2012). Although it is
163 possible to detect the response of some taxa to drivers of change at regional scales
164 (e.g. birds and butterflies in Europe: Devictor et al. 2012; Thomas et al. 2004), most
165 of the knowledge of response mechanisms or processes that is used to construct and
166 parameterize more mechanistic process-based predictive models is from studies
167 conducted at very local scales. Local measures of biodiversity responses are usually
168 extrapolated to larger scales with the assumption that species will respond equally
169 across their range (Henle et al. 2014). However, species response mechanisms can
170 differ locally due to complex biotic and abiotic interactions (Gilman et al. 2010;
171 Tylianakis et al. 2011) and therefore produce spatially heterogeneous patterns of a
172 response to changes (e.g. along an elevation or latitudinal gradient: Chen et al. 2011;
173 Devictor et al. 2012) as well as in community composition and turn-over (e.g. decline
174 of 'cold' specialist species versus increase in 'warm' generalist species: Devictor et
175 al. 2012; Juillard et al. 2006).

176 One goal of a global terrestrial species monitoring scheme under GEO BON is
177 to foster effective coordination among existing monitoring programs. This is because
178 biodiversity monitoring has historically lacked coordination and integration (Marsh &
179 Trenham 2008; Schmeller 2008a). There are many different initiatives that
180 collectively could make a greater contribution to global biodiversity monitoring than
181 can the sum of their individual parts, but currently do not. Each of the following types
182 of programs could potentially contribute to this goal: (i) short-term monitoring
183 programs targeted at impact assessment and mitigation (e.g. GLOBE:
184 <http://ecotope.org/projects/globe/>), (ii) long-term study sites and networks that
185 monitor a suite of organisms (e.g. Long-term Ecological Research (LTER), the
186 National Ecological Observatory Network (NEON), the Tropical Ecology Assessment
187 & Monitoring network (TEAM)), (iii) programs organized by taxa (e.g. North American

188 and European breeding bird surveys, butterfly monitoring programs, species-specific
189 monitoring programs), (iv) regional, state and national systematic inventory and
190 monitoring programs (e.g. inventories of trees and vascular plants by national forest
191 and park services, and the New Zealand Department of Conservation's Biodiversity
192 Monitoring and Reporting System, <http://tinyurl.com/k5en8ws>), and (v) citizen science
193 monitoring initiatives (e.g. Global Amphibian Bio-Blitz:
194 <http://www.inaturalist.org/projects/global-amphibian-bioblitz>; a Ver Aves:
195 <http://averaves.org/>; Great Backyard Bird Count: <http://gbbc.birdcount.org/>; see also
196 Donnelly et al. 2013; Schmeller et al. 2009; Fig. 1).

197 Since 2009, the GEO BON working group on terrestrial species monitoring has
198 conducted a range of workshops, teleconferences, and expert discussions to
199 elaborate on the best ways to develop a global terrestrial species monitoring scheme.
200 Here we present the outcome of these efforts and identify nine requirements that are
201 important for the successful implementation of a global terrestrial species monitoring
202 program:

203 **1. Designing and implementing an integrated information chain from** 204 **monitoring to policy reporting**

205 A global terrestrial species monitoring program should coordinate and
206 integrate global data and metadata collection, survey design (both sampling
207 strategies and field protocols), data storage and access, computation and modelling
208 of biodiversity indicators, and dissemination of policy-relevant reports in a
209 comprehensive framework (Fig. 1). This integrated approach is required precisely
210 because many previous attempts to coordinate biodiversity monitoring schemes have
211 failed (for the European monitoring landscape, see Schmeller 2008a). Moreover,
212 many previous biodiversity monitoring schemes have been limited by poor survey
213 design, lack of data interoperability, inadequate plans for data storage and quality
214 assessment, and lack of alignment between data and policy information needs (e.g.
215 Yoccoz et al. 2001).

216 **2. Capacity-building to create a comprehensive spatial monitoring program**

217 GEO BON Terrestrial Species will need to involve citizens, supported by
218 professionals, to collect data, compute indicators, interpret trends, and implement

219 policy. However, current monitoring efforts are very unevenly distributed
220 geographically (Amano & Sutherland 2013; Martin et al. 2012) and are biased
221 towards particular taxa (Schmeller et al. 2009). Capacity building and standardized
222 infrastructure are most critical in regions that have difficult access (Magnusson et al.
223 2013:20). These information gaps in regard to geographic, temporal and especially
224 taxonomic coverage, are well illustrated by the data used to report on the Wild Bird
225 Index (e.g. Butchart et al. 2010), the Living Planet Index (Collen et al. 2008), the
226 distribution of range-expanding species such as invasives (McGeoch et al. 2010),
227 and the distribution of ecological field studies, including the network of LTER sites
228 Metzger et al. 2010; Martin et al. 2012). The mismatch between where biodiversity is
229 most abundant and diverse (the tropical regions) and where expertise and capacity is
230 concentrated (the temperate zones) leaves research and policy largely uninformed
231 about the status and trends of a large proportion of biodiversity. This includes
232 targeting particular priority attributes or taxa, such as sites or species experiencing
233 rapid species range contractions and expansions. There are tools that can aggregate
234 and add value to local-scale monitoring programs by demonstrating broader-scale
235 patterns (Arnquist & Wooster 1995; Karl et al. 2013). Monitoring efforts should
236 encompass both range-expanding and range-contracting species (Gaston 2011).
237 Capacity building in tropical regions is a major challenge, and GEO BON will facilitate
238 this process by transferring expertise via training with lessons taken from existing
239 research projects (e.g. BIOTA: Jürgens et al. 2012; PPBio: Magnusson et al. 2013)
240 and fellowship programs (e.g. the Zoological Society of London's EDGE, or the
241 Conservation Leadership Program).

242 A further challenge for capacity building in large-scale and long-term biodiversity
243 monitoring is the management of Big Data (Hampton et al. 2013; Lacher et al. 2012).
244 Although the collection, storage, and curation of monitoring data might remain
245 decentralized, data processing, indicator development and policy-relevant reports are
246 scale-dependent with regard to administrative, geographic, taxonomic and temporal
247 scales (Henle et al. 2010, 2014). A global terrestrial monitoring program has to
248 provide part of the infrastructure, guidelines and technical standards needed for
249 successful implementation of biodiversity observation networks and monitoring
250 programs.

251 **3. Implementing minimal data standards to capture EBVs**

252 Primary (raw) occurrence records, such as those stored in the Global
253 Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF), are currently insufficient for the development
254 of EBVs, as only two EBVs (Species distributions and Community composition) can
255 be informed by GBIF data. Observation or locality data on its own is not informative
256 enough, as it does not give a timeframe over which a species has been sighted (e.g.
257 five individuals of a species during one monitoring event). By adding an observation
258 time (e.g. the maximum number seen simultaneously at one location), the information
259 becomes much more valuable, as it can now be compared across sites and years (if
260 the monitoring protocol is consistent and spatially explicit). Additional information is
261 needed to link biodiversity data to habitat management practices, such as a measure
262 of species assemblage, a standardized habitat description, a geo-referenced
263 location, and other data on processes associated with biodiversity decline. In
264 addition, occurrence or abundance records need to be used in the context of the
265 relevant sampling framework and sampling design or else there is a risk that they are
266 misused.

267 A biodiversity observation network (BON) needs to develop data collection and
268 metadata standards for the different EBVs in order to promote the collection of data
269 beyond the triplet species, location and date (Lindenmayer et al. 2012; Pereira et al.
270 2013). Such data and databases must then be maintained as both functional and
271 accessible, which is currently not always the case (Magnusson et al. 2013). Critical to
272 creating value-added indicators from species-presence data is the addition of
273 complementary information on species absences and places where a species was
274 searched for, but not found. Checklist data aggregators, such as eBird are beginning
275 to fill this gap for selected taxa. This is less of a problem for remote-sensing
276 surrogates, but validation of the relationship between these surrogates and species
277 and habitats they are meant to represent has only recently been started (Bunce et al.
278 2013; Nagendra et al. 2013, see also Caro 2010). Without information on the amount
279 of search effort that is required for registering a species' presence, it is usually
280 impossible to robustly evaluate trends in abundance or geographical occupation (but
281 see Syfert et al. 2013; van Strien et al. 2013).

282 **4. Implementing common monitoring protocols**

283 The adoption of common observation and monitoring protocols for new
284 programs, together with assimilating existing ones (Allen et al. 2003; Henry et al.
285 2008; Lengyel et al. 2008; Schmeller et al., 2009, 2012b), would foster data
286 integration, data interoperability and indicator extraction. A shortlist of protocols
287 needs to be developed by examining the feasibility and complementarity of what is
288 currently implemented (Magnusson et al. 2013). From the outset, plans should be
289 made for systems that will enable the estimation of frequencies of false absences
290 and the probability of detection so that data can be integrated across observers and
291 technologies (e.g. Buckland et al. 2010; MacKenzie et al. 2002). A minimum
292 requirement would be the delivery of certain data types, such as the relative numbers
293 of a species in a certain site at a particular date that can inform different EBVs and is
294 compliant with data standards. Further, at least part of the sampling should cover the
295 area of interest in a way that is as close to random sampling, including also stratified
296 random sampling, to account for regional differences, and targeted sampling to
297 consider rare species (Ortega et al. 2013). The sampling strategy employed must be
298 feasible and not concentrated only where the species is expected to be (Gitzen &
299 Millspaugh 2012; Gregory et al. 2004; Magnusson et al. 2013).

300 **5. Developing and optimizing semantics and ontologies for data** 301 **interoperability**

302 While adoption of common protocols would greatly increase the usability of
303 biodiversity data, it is not practical for existing long-term monitoring programs to
304 change methodologies, as long time-series using common methodologies are
305 invaluable for detecting accurate trends in biodiversity status. Techniques for
306 harmonizing data collected with disparate methodologies exist (e.g. Henry et al.
307 2008), but sufficiently structured, machine-readable metadata are critical to this
308 integration (Lin et al. 2015). For example, bird densities over much of boreal Canada
309 have been estimated from multiple disparate data sources by explicitly modelling
310 detection probabilities as functions of distance, duration, vegetation, and singing-
311 rates (Sólymos et al. 2013). Critical to this type of integration is the capacity to
312 discover and filter data and metadata from primary sources (Walls et al. 2014). While
313 there are methodological advances (e.g. Aizpurua et al. in press; Bird et al. 2014;
314 Pagel et al. 2014;), biodiversity scientists capture and assemble data as well as the

315 semantics of the data in so many ways that it is still necessary to either improve
316 existing approaches or develop new ones (Walls et al. 2014). Newer techniques,
317 such as Natural Language Processing to extract names of species and places from
318 text messages in a citizen science project, might make opportunistically collected
319 data accessible to scientific analyses in the future (Lin et al. 2015).

320 **6. Integrating emerging technologies (monitoring, data management and** 321 **analysis)**

322 Technologies, such as remote sensing, camera trap networks (Rowcliffe et al.
323 2008, 2011), soundscaping (Pijanowski & Farina 2011), drones (Anderson & Gaston
324 2013, Koh & Wich 2012), copter-based transects, phenocams, and radio tracking can
325 help automate standard observations, decrease long-term monitoring costs, increase
326 the frequency of assessments, and extend coverage to remote places, although each
327 comes at a cost and has its own strengths and weaknesses. Especially remote
328 sensing is developing rapidly (Nagendra et al. 2013) and has the potential to rapidly
329 increase the coverage of biodiversity monitoring in all realms and difficult to access
330 ecosystems, e.g. using the L-band in mangrove monitoring (Ortega et al. 2013, Lucas
331 et al. 2007; 2014). Metagenomics offers the possibility of non-invasive monitoring of
332 whole assemblages, and data repositories are available for data collected that may
333 be of use in the future. Adoption of new technologies is imperative to fill the huge
334 monitoring gaps and to overcome current biases in monitoring coverage (Balmford et
335 al. 2005; Collen et al. 2008). However, if not properly integrated into a
336 comprehensive biodiversity observation network, the increasing amount of
337 biodiversity data collected with high-tech tools may not benefit local and regional
338 BONs. Developments in this sector are rapid (Ortega et al. 2013), and it is important
339 to consider data comparability as many of the new techniques may soon be
340 outdated, while the data collected with them is of high value. Employed effectively,
341 high-tech biodiversity monitoring tools could boost biodiversity monitoring, both by
342 complementing field-based surveys with desk-based analyses and by targeting
343 different users and audiences. However, high-tech tools also generate large datasets
344 that present challenges for storage and analysis (see above, capacity building
345 needs).

346 **7. Coordinating diverse but complementary local nodes**

347 A global species monitoring network needs to offer a platform for dialogue
348 between existing monitoring programs through fostering the coordination of efforts by
349 regional and national biodiversity observation networks (e.g. Arctic BON, Asia–Pacific
350 BON, BIOTA; national BONs: ECOSCOPE (France), Countryside survey (Great
351 Britain), NEM (Netherlands), NILS (Sweden), PPBio (Brazil)). It is important that
352 these networks explore interoperability and identify opportunities for integration that
353 will allow a global analysis of the state and trends of biodiversity and to detect
354 globally relevant patterns. Such integration is challenging because monitoring
355 programs and networks differ in spatial coverage (number of sites monitored),
356 intensity of information (quantity of data collected per site), and frequency of
357 coverage (number of times a site is visited in a survey period or per year, or between
358 years). The various programs contribute differently to the description of patterns and
359 processes of biodiversity, and are thus highly complementary, but harmonization
360 might be achieved by global stratification to account for regional differences (Metzger
361 et al. 2013). To track biodiversity trends at the global scale, it will be important to
362 identify all under-studied regions and taxa. It would be further important to prioritize
363 future capacity building efforts in those places using e.g. an approach of national
364 responsibilities and global stratification (Schmeller et al. 2008b,c, 2012a, 2014;
365 Metzger et al. 2013) or topical priorities (Henle et al. 2013). Protocols used for
366 intensive studies usually differ from those used in wide-scale surveys. If a minimum
367 set of common methods were used in both situations, it would greatly increase the
368 possibilities for integrated analyses (Costa & Magnusson 2010, Magnusson et al.
369 2013). A global monitoring program will need to facilitate this process via workshops
370 and coordination on a global scale.

371 **8. Providing a common predictive modelling framework**

372 To develop global-scale models with greater predictive power, GEO BON
373 Terrestrial Species advocates a common modelling framework. Traditional modelling
374 approaches are insufficient for modelling changes in ecological systems reliably
375 (Sutherland 2006). Non-linear, ‘tipping point’, or complex feedback loops are
376 currently the biggest limitations for most modelling approaches for extrapolating
377 conditions in time and space beyond the boundaries of current knowledge (Evans et
378 al. 2012, 2013; Pereira et al. 2010b; Polasky et al. 2011). A variety of methods have

379 been developed for optimizing biodiversity monitoring practices in terms of survey
380 design (e.g. of sampling methods and frequency) by identifying the most strategic
381 alternatives that allow for accurately detecting and tracking changes while minimizing
382 efforts and resources (e.g. Lindenmayer & Possingham 1996). Also, the more
383 recently developed predictive mechanistic process-based models, relating different
384 variables and/or different spatial and temporal scales (e.g. Harfoot et al. 2014), rely
385 on comprehensive biodiversity information. Extending the use of such predictive
386 modelling approaches to larger spatial, temporal and taxonomic scales would be an
387 essential element in defining the best practices for integrative biodiversity monitoring
388 at the regional or global scale. However, we currently lack regional-to-global-scale
389 datasets to calibrate and validate predictive models of change for each of the EBVs.
390 An improved modelling framework, adoption of a suitable monitoring design, and
391 optimized spatial coverage based on the parameter and data needs, would lead to
392 reliable predictions and would help to prioritize conservation planning strategies
393 (Gillson et al. 2013, Henle et al. 2013; Wilson et al. 2006).

394 **9. Facilitating and securing funding**

395 A solid and long-term financial base is critical for maintaining the structures
396 and institutions that generate, curate and interpret biodiversity data so that they are
397 functional and effective over time. Policymakers and stakeholders must recognize
398 that biodiversity data collection, storage and processing require funding. With
399 strategic organization and coordination, global biodiversity monitoring can be cost-
400 effective (Targetti et al. 2014). Establishment of national, regional and global offices
401 to coordinate biodiversity on the respective scales often necessitates startup funds
402 for building informatics infrastructures and capacity where needed. Therefore, one of
403 the goals of GEO BON Terrestrial Species is to engage policymakers in finding ways
404 to fund biodiversity monitoring that can serve decision-making in the long-term.

405 **Discussion**

406 Here, we have outlined nine requirements for the successful development of a
407 global terrestrial species monitoring program. A global program is urgently needed,
408 as currently most biodiversity data allow the measurement of a few aspects of
409 biodiversity change only and we only partially understand the relation of biodiversity

410 change to environmental change, especially at global scales. While there are a
411 number of programs monitoring biodiversity, for very disparate purposes and using a
412 large variety of methods and approaches, integrating data from monitoring programs
413 operating on local, regional, national and continental scales has generally not been
414 achieved. A notable exception is the work on birds and butterflies in North America
415 and in Europe (Butchart et al. 2010; Gregory & van Strien 2010; van Swaay et al.
416 2008; Tittensor et al. 2014). More integrative biodiversity monitoring targets at global
417 scales addressing multiple variables across e.g. the EBV framework, by prioritizing
418 efforts using e.g. stratifications and matching complementary monitoring schemes
419 are urgently needed. Critical thought needs to be given to design future biodiversity
420 monitoring strategies in order to make sure that data collection can fill existing gaps
421 in the comprehensiveness of biodiversity measurements (e.g. individual traits and
422 functional interactions). For that, we also need systematic monitoring of biophysical
423 parameters at biodiversity monitoring sites, which rarely occurs (but see e.g. NEON,
424 PPBio). This disconnection undermines our ability to determine the causes and
425 consequences of biodiversity loss, as models cannot be correctly parameterized
426 (Magnusson et al. 2013). Hence, the nine requirements outlined here aim to lead to
427 the integration of monitoring programs and would help to fill existing data gaps, to
428 develop robust predictive models of future change scenarios, and to monitor
429 biodiversity trends on large spatial scales. Such a comprehensive network might
430 enable scientists and policymakers to better understand the status and trends of
431 biodiversity and act accordingly with the interests of both nature and people in mind.
432 Such a global effort is also important for assessing international progress in
433 biodiversity conservation and progress towards agreed conservation targets, such as
434 the Aichi targets of the CBD. While national, regional, and thematic BONs might
435 serve their respective geographic scales best, GEO BON Terrestrial Species will
436 need to focus on global and supraregional patterns and policies. The nine
437 requirements identified here represent a pathway for achieving effective species
438 monitoring on the global scale: our past experience has contributed to identify the
439 main pitfalls targeted by each of these requirements. We believe that international
440 organization and political willingness will be necessary to make the best of the
441 already large but un-coordinated monitoring effort. Rather than simply a call for more
442 funding, GEO BON Terrestrial Species calls for the improved coordination and policy

443 support at all scales necessary to improve efficiency of current spending on
444 biodiversity monitoring.

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775 Figure legends

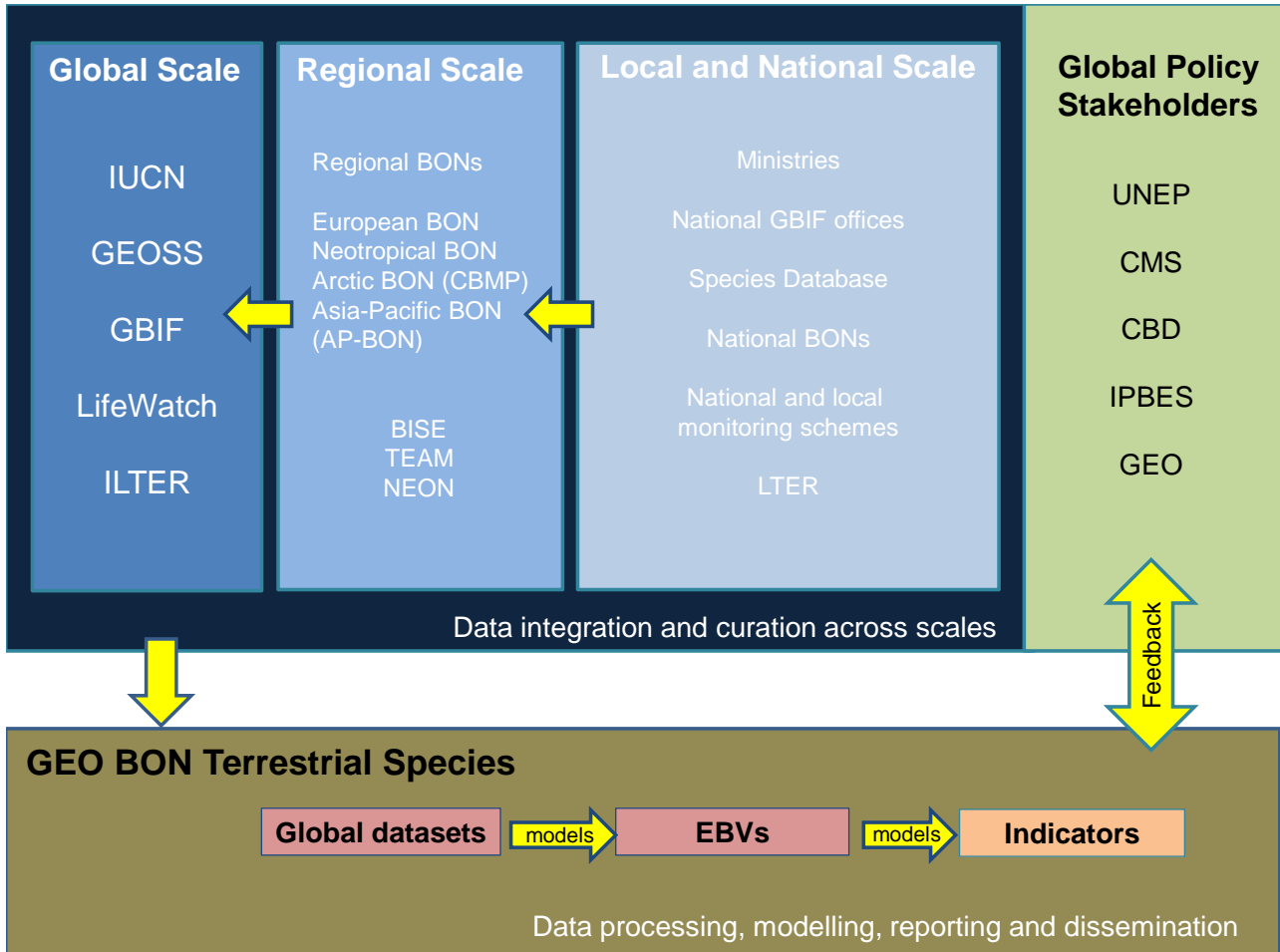
776 Figure 1: The steps from 'local and national' to 'regional' to 'global' scale biodiversity
777 monitoring. Data from the different scales need to be integrated and curated across
778 scales. These global datasets will be processed by GEO BON Terrestrial Species,
779 modelled, and used to inform EBVs and key indicators. The resulting reports will then
780 be disseminated to important stakeholders on a global scale.

781

782

783 **Figure 1**

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