

1 **Taxonomic bias: a persistent issue in ecology and evolution**

2 Pietro Pollo*, Michael M. Kasumovic

3 Evolution & Ecology Research Centre, School of Biological, Earth & Environmental Sciences,

4 University of New South Wales, Kensington, NSW, 2052, Australia

5 * Corresponding author: pietro_pollo@hotmail.com

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7 **ORCID**

8 Pietro Pollo: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6555-5400>

9 Michael M. Kasumovic: <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0158-5517>

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11

12 **Abstract**

13 Scientific hyperfocus on certain organisms slows innovation and hinders the generality of
14 ecological and evolutionary inference. Yet, the extent of taxonomic bias in this field and its
15 potential changes over time remain poorly quantified. By assessing 1,383,803 papers and 612
16 journals, we show that ecology and evolution research is strongly taxonomically biased. We
17 found that studies on vertebrates, relative to those on invertebrates, (1) became more frequent
18 over time, (2) were more prevalent in higher impact journals, and (3) received a greater number
19 of citations and mentions in the media. However, classifying animals into more specific groups
20 led to context-dependent temporal and attention patterns. We propose a series of urgent
21 affirmative actions to ameliorate taxonomic imbalances in ecology and evolution.

22

23 **Key-words:** knowledge imbalance, journal citation indicator, journal impact factor, research
24 bias, research impact, taxonomic chauvinism, taxonomic specialisation.

25

26

27 **Introduction**

28 More than 1.5 million animal species have been described to date [1], with many more yet to be
29 discovered [2,3]. Despite this enormous diversity, analyses of awarded grants [4], biodiversity
30 databases [5,6], conservation or reintroduction projects [7–10], scientific articles [4,11–20], and
31 textbooks [21] have identified that certain taxa receive disproportionate attention in the field of
32 ecology and evolution relative to their diversity. For example, vertebrates, especially birds and
33 mammals, often concentrate conservation [7–10] and research [12,16,18–20] efforts even though
34 they represent only a minute portion of existing animals [1]. This inequity, called taxonomic bias
35 or taxonomic chauvinism [11], can stifle innovation in medicine and engineering by limiting
36 biomimetics [22,23] and curb scientific advancement by impeding theoretical generality [11,24].
37 However, it is unclear whether taxonomic patterns in the ecology and evolution literature are
38 universal as previous studies on taxonomic bias relied on small samples constrained by manual
39 taxonomic identification and limited journal [13,16] or topic [12,14] coverage. Most importantly,
40 whether these patterns changed since taxonomic bias was first discussed by researchers in the
41 early 2000s [11,13] remains unknown.

42 Here, we explored several facets of taxonomic bias in the entire literature of ecology and
43 evolution (612 journals and 1,383,803 papers), primarily focusing on animals. We aimed to
44 quantify the extent of taxonomic bias and assess whether and how it has changed over time. To
45 do so, we first assessed patterns related to journal taxonomic specialisation. Second, we
46 investigated the proportion of papers on distinct taxonomic groups over time. Third, we
47 evaluated the relationship between journals' impact metrics and the proportion of papers they
48 published on each animal group. Fourth, we examined how the attention given to individual

49 papers within journals varied with the animal group studied. We hypothesised that taxonomic
50 patterns have not changed over time, and that papers on vertebrates, especially birds and
51 mammals, are not only more prevalent in journals with higher impact metrics but also receive
52 more attention than papers on other animals within the same journal and year. If these
53 hypotheses are true, it would mean that researchers are limiting our understanding of the world
54 and stifling potential innovation, possibly to pursue metrics that maximise their own research
55 exposure.

56

57 **Material and methods**

58 *Preregistration*

59 Some of our methodology was described in our preregistration [25]. However, we greatly
60 expanded our original plan, which culminated in two separate projects: the present study
61 describing patterns of taxonomic bias in the literature of ecology and evolution, and another
62 study exploring the potential drivers of taxonomic bias from data collected *via* a survey with
63 behavioural ecologists [26]. Changes from our preregistration are summarised as follows. First,
64 we initially planned to examine taxonomic bias in papers published in 10 behaviour journals, but
65 later expanded the range of our study to a much broader selection of journals related to ecology
66 and evolution (see details below). Second, we originally planned to include non-animal
67 organisms when classifying papers' taxonomic focus. Nonetheless, distinguishing the use of non-
68 animal organisms as research objects from their use as animals' environment, substrate, or food
69 proved to be difficult. Therefore, we opted to only identify animal taxa in our study. Third, we
70 originally planned to improve the algorithm using up to 500 papers, but used many more instead
71 to ensure the reliability of the taxonomic classification algorithm (see details below). Fourth,

72 many analyses in the present study, such as those involving data from Altmetric, were not
73 initially planned in our preregistration.

74

75 *Journal selection and classification*

76 PP selected all journals that were classified as “behavioral sciences”, “biodiversity
77 conservation”, “ecology”, “entomology”, “evolutionary biology”, “marine & freshwater
78 biology”, “ornithology” or “zoology” by Clarivate’s Journal Citation Records (JCR), tallying
79 696 journals. PP then retained only journals (1) whose Clarivate’s journal impact factor (2024)
80 was available and (2) were also indexed by Scimago Journal Rank as “agricultural and biological
81 sciences” or “environmental sciences”, which resulted in the selection of 612 journals (Fig. S1).

82 Afterwards, PP collated the scope of each journal (available in their respective website) and used
83 this information to determine journals’ taxonomic focus. Note that some journals that vaguely
84 described their taxonomic criteria (e.g. laboratory animals) or that only inadvertently excluded
85 certain organisms because of the subject they specialised on (e.g. soil ecology journals probably
86 do not publish research on fish but have no such explicit restrictions) were still considered
87 taxonomically unrestricted. Moreover, journals on entomology or insect science were deemed to
88 include all arthropods unless they explicitly mentioned focusing on a particular insect group (e.g.
89 lepidopterans, orthopterans).

90

91 *Journal impact metrics*

92 PP used two journal impact metrics in the present study: the journal citation indicator (JCI) and
93 the journal impact factor (JIF). Both metrics are calculated by JCR and were thus extracted
94 during the journal selection process (see subsection above). The year in which these metrics are

95 calculated by Clarivate is referred to as the JCR year, which was 2024 for the present study. Both
96 JCI and JIF quantify citation performance but differ in key aspects. The JCI is normalised for
97 field, document age, and document type; it uses citations from the JCR year plus previous three
98 years (i.e. 2024-2021) for articles and reviews (but not other document types, e.g. letters or
99 editorials) published in the previous three years (i.e. 2023-2021). By contrast, JIF is an absolute
100 metric based on citations received in the JCR year (i.e. 2024) to all documents published in the
101 previous two years (i.e. 2023-2022).

102

103 *Literature searches*

104 On 29 December 2025, PP retrieved information from 1,695,614 documents by searching the
105 International Standard Serial Number (ISSN) of the 612 journals aforementioned on Scopus
106 (accessed through the University of New South Wales). 1,389,068 documents from 606 journals
107 remained in the dataset after PP excluded documents that were (1) officially published in 2026,
108 (2) duplicated, or (3) had missing information (DOI, journal name, abstract, title, and/or author
109 names). PP further excluded documents that were classified by Scopus as “book” (n = 9), “book
110 chapter” (n = 13), “editorial” (n = 870), “erratum” (n = 4,159), and “retracted” (n = 214) as these
111 do not represent valid standard research outputs. Conversely, other documents (hereby *papers*)
112 classified by Scopus as “article” (n = 1,305,271), “conference paper” (n = 17,448), “data paper”
113 (n = 290), “letter” (n = 2,627), “note” (n = 4,104), “review” (n = 52,165), or “short survey” (n =
114 1,898) remained in the dataset, tallying 1,383,803 papers from 606 journals.

115

116 *Altmetric data*

117 On 20 January 2026, PP used the Altmetric API (“Counts Only” version) to gather all available
118 metrics of attention indexed by Altmetric related to the papers retrieved. However, note that only
119 44.4% (613,768 out of 1,383,803) of the papers in our dataset were found in the Altmetric
120 database. We specifically used three metrics of attention collected by Altmetric in our analyses
121 (see details below): mentions in online documents (e.g. blogs, news outlets, patents, policies,
122 social media, Wikipedia), readers in Mendeley, and Altmetric score (i.e. a weighted estimate of
123 several attention metrics).

124

125 *Taxonomic classification*

126 PP selected ten animal groups to identify papers’ taxonomic focus from their title, abstract, and
127 author keywords: (1) amphibians, (2) arachnids, (3) birds, (4) crustaceans (i.e. non-hexapod
128 pancrustaceans), (5) fish (i.e. non-tetrapod vertebrates), (6) insects, (7) mammals, (8) molluscs,
129 (9) (non-avian) reptiles, and (10) other (unnamed invertebrates). MMK and PP independently
130 evaluated the taxonomic focus of 100 papers, resulting in eight conflicts that were resolved after
131 discussion and that generated clear criteria to evaluate papers’ taxonomic focus, as follows. First,
132 humans (i.e. any species of the genus *Homo*) were treated as non-animal organisms for
133 classification purposes. Second, papers could focus on distinct animal groups by exploring
134 interactions (e.g. predator-prey, host-parasite) between species of different groups or simply by
135 using or collecting data related to multiple taxa. However, animal groups were only identified as
136 being the focus of a paper when they were directly or indirectly (e.g. byproducts, images)
137 involved in the research presented (regardless of whether the research was empirical, theoretical,
138 or a review), but not when they were simply mentioned as references (see Table S1 for

139 examples). Third, papers needed to specify taxonomic information to the level of our taxonomic
140 classification, meaning that vague or high-level terms (e.g. shellfish, vertebrates, zooplankton)
141 were ignored if no specific taxonomic terms were given. Applying these criteria, PP manually
142 identified the animal taxa examined in 6,749 papers, which were used to train and test an
143 algorithm that automates this process (see below).

144 In order to automate the classification of papers' taxonomic focus, PP compiled a set of
145 words associated with different taxa (hereby *taxonomic keywords*), which included part of the
146 GBIF Backbone Taxonomy [27] (Supplementary file S2) and a customised set of keywords
147 (Supplementary file S3). PP then developed a simple algorithm to identify papers' taxonomic
148 focus based on taxonomic keywords detected in papers' title, abstract, and author keywords. PP
149 used 4,934 papers that he inspected as a training set to manually add and adjust taxonomic
150 keywords, improving the algorithm. The algorithm was also able to identify some combinations
151 of keywords that would generate incorrect labels if left unchecked. For instance, spider monkey
152 is a mammal, but the terms "spider" and "monkey" are taxonomic keywords that the algorithm
153 uses to identify studies focusing on arachnids and mammals, respectively. PP thus added a step
154 in the algorithm that corrects for these occurrences.

155 PP evaluated the efficacy of the algorithm mentioned above in three ways. First, PP
156 compared the manually identified taxonomic focus of the remaining 1,815 papers he inspected
157 with the equivalent labels generated by the algorithm. PP found that the algorithm had, for each
158 taxonomic group (Table S2), at least 97.2% accuracy (i.e. proportion of correct predictions [28]),
159 84.4% precision (i.e. proportion of predicted positives that are truly positive [29]), 95.4%
160 sensitivity (i.e. true positive rate, also called recall [29,30]), 96.9% specificity (i.e., true negative
161 rate [30]), and 91.2% F1-score (i.e. harmonic mean of precision and sensitivity [31]). Note that

162 the training and the test sets each contained at least three papers from each of the 605 journals in
163 the dataset (one other journal had only one paper in the dataset, which was used in the training
164 set), ensuring a reliable comparison. Second, PP verified the proportion of papers from
165 taxonomically specialised journals receiving impossible taxonomic labels, such as studies
166 published in the Journal of Mammalogy identified by the algorithm as involving only animals
167 other than mammals. He detected these gross errors in only 0.06% of all such papers (see also
168 Figs. S5 and S6). Third, PP compared the taxonomic labels generated by the algorithm with the
169 dataset from Stahlshmidt [12], who manually identified a single animal taxon focused by 82
170 papers present in our dataset. PP found that the algorithm's taxonomic classifications matched
171 Stahlshmidt's, except for a paper on humans (classified by Stahlshmidt as mammal). However,
172 the algorithm also identified additional animal groups for 14 of these papers besides those
173 identified by Stahlshmidt.

174

175 *Statistical analyses*

176 PP fitted several models to analyse taxonomic patterns of journals and papers. He first conducted
177 a linear regression with journal impact factor as the response variable and journal taxonomic
178 scope as the predictor variable. He then performed three Dirichlet regressions, all with the same
179 response variable (proportions of papers involving zero, one, or two or more animal groups) and
180 random effect (journal identity), but each with a different predictor variable (year of publication,
181 journal impact factor, or journal citation index).

182 To conduct all other analyses, i.e. those involving single-animal-group papers published
183 in taxonomically unrestricted journals, PP used two complementary approaches. He analysed
184 papers from all journals combined to characterise overall taxonomic patterns in the ecology and

185 evolution literature, but also assessed how taxonomic patterns varied across this field by
186 examining papers within one of five journal sets: aquatic (journals classified by JCR as “marine
187 or freshwater biology”; N = 76), behaviour (journals classified as “behavioral sciences”; N = 16),
188 conservation (journals classified as “biodiversity conservation” but not included in the aquatic
189 set; N = 62), general ecology and evolution (remaining journals classified as “ecology” or
190 “evolutionary biology”; N = 142), and zoology (all remaining journals, mostly classified as
191 “zoology” but some as “entomology”; N = 79). Within each of these approaches, two different
192 taxonomic levels were analysed: binary (vertebrates *vs.* invertebrates) and specific (10 animal
193 groups previously mentioned).

194 Under the scenarios described above, PP performed logistic regressions (binary taxa) or
195 Dirichlet regressions (specific taxa), with journal identity as a random effect and a single
196 predictor variable (year of publication, journal impact factor, or journal citation index). PP made
197 sensitive analyses of these models by excluding journals with impact factor greater than 6 and
198 citation indicator greater than 2, considering the relationship between a journal impact metric and
199 the prevalence of papers on an animal group as different from zero when both model versions
200 yielded the same qualitative results.

201 Lastly, PP fitted several generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs) with a negative
202 binomial error distribution to explore the attention given to single-animal-group papers
203 depending on the taxon they focused on. In these GLMMs, the response variable could be one of
204 four attention metrics: the number of (1) citations by other papers according to Scopus, (2)
205 mentions in online documents, (3) readers in Mendeley, or (4) (rounded) Altmetric score. In
206 these models, journal identity, year of publication, and their interaction were random factors and
207 either binary or specific animal groups was the predictor variable.

208 Analyses involved papers published over a certain timespan: 2001-2025 for most models,
209 but 1976-2025 to assess temporal patterns regarding number of taxa covered, and 2021-2025 to
210 assess the association between journal impact metrics and focused animal group. Continuous
211 variables in all models fitted were scaled by subtracting the mean from each value and then
212 dividing the result by the standard deviation.

213 PP conducted all analyses using R v. 4.5.1 [32]. PP fitted GLMMs using the package
214 *glmmTMB* v. 1.1.12 [33,34] and performed pairwise comparisons for these models using the
215 packages *emmeans* v. 1.11.2.8 [35], *multcomp* v. 1.4.28 [36], and *multcompView* v. 0.1.10 [37].
216 PP conducted logistic and Dirichlet regressions using the package *brms* v. 2.23.0 [38–40] and the
217 package *cmdstanr* v. 0.9.0 [41]. For these regressions, PP ran three chains, each with 5,000
218 iterations plus another 5,000 burn-in iterations, adopting Stan's standard uninformative priors and
219 setting the adaptive delta to 0.9. PP then computed the predictions and trends of such regressions
220 using the package *marginalEffects* v. 0.31.0 [42].

221

222 **Results**

223 *Taxonomic patterns across journals*

224 Almost 40% (235 out of 612) of journals had explicit taxonomic restrictions, and 42.1% of these
225 taxonomically specialised journals (99 out of 235) focused exclusively on all or some arthropods
226 (Fig. 1A). Only journals specialised on birds had, on average, a lower impact factor than
227 taxonomically unrestricted journals or those specialised in humans or non-animal organisms
228 (Fig. 1B). However, the small number of journals specialised in other animal groups (e.g.
229 arachnids, molluscs) may have limited our ability to detect statistical differences between their
230 average impact factor and that of taxonomically unrestricted journals.

231 Following Clarivate’s Journal Citation Report (hereby *JCR*; Fig. S1) classification
232 system, we found that, unsurprisingly, most journals assigned to taxonomically driven JCR
233 categories (i.e. entomology and ornithology) were taxonomically specialised (Fig. 1C).
234 Meanwhile, taxonomically unrestricted journals dominated other JCR categories (Fig. 1C).

235

236 *Taxonomic patterns across papers*

237 We found that most papers in the field of ecology and evolution mention a single animal group
238 (hereby *single-animal-group papers*) from the 10 categories we used for taxonomic classification
239 (Fig. S2A). However, the prevalence of single-animal-group papers in the literature has slightly
240 decreased over the last five decades (Fig. S2A; Supplementary file S1). We also observed that
241 journals with higher impact factor and higher journal citation indicator were more likely to
242 publish papers that did not specifically mention animals (e.g. conceptual or theoretical studies,
243 empirical studies on humans, non-animal organisms, or the environment; Fig. S2B, C;
244 Supplementary file S1). Although the distribution of both journal impact factor and journal
245 citation indicator was right-skewed (Fig. S2D, E), the patterns we found related to these metrics
246 persisted when high-impact journals were excluded from our analyses (Supplementary file S1).

247 We gathered 991,894 ecology and evolution papers involving animals, the oldest of them
248 published in 1877. 457,064 (46.1%) of these papers involved only invertebrates, 447,800
249 (45.1%) only vertebrates, and 8,730 (8.8%) both invertebrates and vertebrates. When partitioning
250 animals into the 10 aforementioned groups, we observed that insects, mammals, and fish were
251 the most popular animals in this literature (Fig. 2A). Still, insects were the least investigated
252 animal group in relation to its diversity, while mammals and fish were the most overrepresented
253 by the same standard (Fig. 2B).

254 Studies predominantly investigated each animal group in isolation, but the number of
255 animal groups examined varied depending on the animals involved (Fig. 2A). For instance, while
256 81.4% of papers involving insects focused solely on them, almost half (47.7%) of papers on
257 arachnids concomitantly involved other animals (Fig. 2A). This pattern could be even stronger
258 when considering particular animals, such as ticks, a group of obligate parasites that represents
259 0.08% of all living arachnids [43] but is mentioned by 20.1% of papers involving arachnids
260 alongside other animals.

261 Nearly half of all single-animal-group papers on insects and arachnids were published in
262 taxonomically specialised journals (Fig. 2C). Single-animal-group papers on other animals were
263 mostly published in taxonomically unrestricted journals, although some more than others (Fig.
264 2C).

265 We hereon focus on single-animal-group papers ($N = 560,364$) published in
266 taxonomically unrestricted journals ($N = 375$). Most of these papers focused on vertebrates
267 overall (Fig. 3A). However, when animals were divided into more specific groups, insects
268 emerged as the single most frequently studied group, followed closely by fish, mammals, and
269 birds. Furthermore, when separating journals into five distinct sets (largely based on JCR
270 categories), we noted that taxonomic patterns were not uniform across the literature of ecology
271 and evolution. For instance, in 2025, approximately half of the papers published in aquatic-
272 related journals focused on fish, while most of the remaining papers examined invertebrates
273 other than arachnids and insects (Fig. 3B). By contrast, mammals and birds were particularly
274 popular in journals focusing on behaviour, conservation, and general ecology and evolution (Fig.
275 3C-E), while zoology journals published mainly papers on invertebrates by 2025, primarily due
276 to the high prevalence of papers on insects (Fig. 3F). We additionally found that many

277 taxonomically unrestricted journals showed extreme bias towards a single group of animals (Fig.
278 S3).

279

280 *In relation to time*

281 The prevalence of papers on vertebrates remained the same over the last 25 years in the literature
282 as a whole (Fig. 3A) and in conservation journals (Fig. 3D), yet the same could not be said for
283 other journal sets. For instance, we observed that vertebrates became proportionally more studied
284 than invertebrates in aquatic, behaviour, and general ecology and evolution journals (Fig. 3B, C,
285 E). By contrast, vertebrates became proportionally less studied than invertebrates in zoology
286 journals (Fig. 3F).

287 Changes over time were more frequently observed when classifying animals into specific
288 categories, as the prevalence of papers on 8 (out of 10) animal groups changed in the literature as
289 a whole over the last 25 years (Fig. 3A). However, these trends were small in magnitude: the
290 strongest absolute change was the increase of 3.7% of papers on fish (Fig. 3A). Temporal trends
291 regarding taxa also occurred across various subfields, but often in distinct directions. For
292 example, the proportion of papers on mammals increased in behaviour journals as well as in
293 general ecology and evolution journals (Fig. 3C, E) but remained constant in aquatic journals
294 (Fig. 3B) and decreased in conservation and zoology journals (Fig. 3D, F). Importantly, some
295 changes in taxonomic patterns over time within journal sets were enormous: fish accounted for
296 35.8% of papers published in aquatic journals in 2001 but 49.7% in 2025 (Fig. 3B), while insects
297 increased from 21.5% in 2001 to 41.3% in 2025 in zoology journals (Fig. 3F).

298

299 *In relation to journal impact metrics*

300 Papers published in journals with greater impact factor and citation indicator were more likely to
301 focus on vertebrates (Fig. 4). However, there were exceptions for this pattern: general ecology
302 and evolution journals showed either a negative or an absent relationship between their impact
303 metrics and prevalence of papers on vertebrates (Fig. 4E, K), and behaviour journals strangely
304 showed a positive trend between vertebrate pervasiveness in relation to journal citation indicator
305 (Fig. 4I) but a negative one for journal impact factor (Fig. 4C). Despite these trends, the
306 prevalence of more specific animal groups in papers was rarely associated with journal impact
307 metrics (Fig. 4; Supplementary file S1). For example, birds were as likely to be the focus of
308 papers in high-impact journals as in lower-impact journals, regardless of journal set
309 (Supplementary file S1). We observed, however, a few trends related to taxon prevalence and
310 journal impact metrics. For instance, the proportion of papers on insects across the entire
311 literature was not associated with journal impact factor but increased with journal citation
312 indicator (Fig. 4A, B). The prevalence of papers on crustaceans, both in the literature as a whole
313 and across aquatic journals, decreased with journal impact factor but not with journal citation
314 indicator (Fig. 4C-F). Meanwhile, taxonomic trends regarding journal impact factor and journal
315 citation indicator were congruent for fish and invertebrates other than arachnids, crustaceans,
316 insects, and molluscs in aquatic journals (positive and negative relationship, respectively; Fig.
317 4G-J), and for mammals in journals of general ecology and evolution (negative relationship; Fig.
318 4K, L).

319

320 *In relation to individual attention received*

321 Compared with papers on invertebrates, papers on vertebrates in the ecology and evolution
322 literature as a whole received, on average, 10.6% more citations, accumulated 44.3% more
323 online mentions, attracted 24.2% more readers in Mendeley, and achieved 46.5% higher
324 Altmetric scores (Fig. 5). The same qualitative pattern occurred within journal sets, except for
325 the number of citations in conservation journals, for which no difference was detected between
326 papers on vertebrates vs. invertebrates (Fig. S5C). Meanwhile, the attention received by papers
327 on different animal groups varied substantially across metrics and journal sets (Fig. 5, S5). For
328 example, birds and mammals attracted the greatest online attention in most cases (Fig. 5B; Fig.
329 S4F–J), but this pattern was not always reflected in citation counts (Fig. 5A; Fig. S4A–E).

330

331 **Discussion**

332 Our results show that ecology and evolution research is profoundly taxonomically unbalanced as
333 certain animal groups are consistently neglected, both in representation (relative to diversity) in
334 the literature and in the attention they receive. Although this imbalance has occurred for a long
335 time, it has remained largely stable over the last 25 years. Below, we discuss these patterns in
336 detail, consider their implications for the study of ecology and evolution, and propose actions to
337 ameliorate this issue.

338 We found that vertebrates are greatly overrepresented in the literature of ecology and
339 evolution: they appear in 53.9% of all papers in this field mentioning animals despite
340 representing only 4.3% of animal biodiversity [1]. In fact, the attention given to some
341 invertebrates (e.g. ticks and other parasites) only occurs because of their association with
342 vertebrates, a pattern that had already been noted by others [44]. We thus corroborate and expand

343 previous findings from specific pockets of ecology and evolution [11–13,16], revealing that
344 taxonomic bias is a problem pertaining to the entire field and confirming an “institutional
345 vertebratism” (*sensu* [45]). Nonetheless, we found substantial variation in taxonomic patterns
346 across the ecology and evolution literature when animals were classified in more specific groups.
347 For instance, research published in aquatic journals often involved fish, crustaceans, molluscs,
348 and other non-arthropod invertebrates, while behaviour journals more commonly published
349 research on mammals and birds. This variability indicates that there is not a single popular
350 animal group across ecology and evolution. Furthermore, our discovery that species-rich
351 invertebrate groups (e.g. arachnids, insects) are often relegated to taxonomically specialised
352 journals, which probably reach a narrower audience, suggests that the existing hyperfocus on
353 vertebrates may be even more pronounced from the perspective of an average researcher.

354 The intense taxonomic bias favouring vertebrates in ecology and evolution has shown no
355 signs of improvement since taxonomic bias was first discussed in the early 2000s. More
356 specifically, we observed that the overrepresentation of vertebrates across the literature of
357 ecology and evolution as a whole has remained stable or even increased in certain pockets of this
358 field over the last 25 years. The only temporal increase in invertebrate-focused studies during
359 this period occurred in zoology journals, likely because these outlets concentrate much of (if not
360 all) the existing research on systematics. This includes the revision of taxa and the description of
361 new species, which are predominantly invertebrates precisely because of their immense and still
362 largely undocumented diversity, thus naturally inflating their representation within this journal
363 set. Temporal trends regarding specific animal groups also varied across subdisciplines of
364 ecology and evolution, suggesting that efforts to mitigate taxonomic bias will need to be tailored

365 to the norms and priorities of each subfield. However, increasing research on invertebrates is
366 undoubtedly critical to all subpockets of ecology and evolution.

367 We hypothesised that vertebrates, especially birds and mammals, would receive more
368 attention than invertebrates across and within ecology and evolution journals. Indeed, compared
369 with invertebrates, vertebrates were more likely to be the focus of papers published in journals
370 with higher impact metrics. Likewise, papers on vertebrates acquired more citations, online
371 coverage, Mendeley readers, and greater Altmetric scores than papers on invertebrates. These
372 results are congruent with existing research on the attention given to distinct animal groups
373 within and beyond academia. For instance, Rosenthal et al. [16] found that studies on vertebrates
374 were cited more frequently than those on arthropods. Moreover, vertebrates have been shown to
375 receive more attention than invertebrates on social media (e.g. Instagram [46]) and online
376 knowledge platforms (e.g. Wikipedia [47]). Nonetheless, using finer animal classifications
377 showed more nuanced attention patterns. While journal impact metrics were rarely associated
378 with the likelihood of publication for a specific animal group, the attention given to each animal
379 group within a journal varied within and across subdisciplines and metrics.

380 It is possible that the attention patterns we identified within and across journals stem from
381 researchers behaving differently depending on the organisms they study. For instance, ecologists
382 and evolutionary biologists working on invertebrates may be more likely to submit their research
383 manuscripts to taxonomically specialised or lower-impact journals than those working with
384 vertebrates. Researchers focusing on invertebrates may also struggle to contextualise their
385 research into the existing theory, lowering their chances of publishing in impactful journals and
386 receiving attention overall. However, studies on invertebrates were previously found to cite
387 vertebrates more often than studies on birds and mammals cited other taxa [48], which suggests

388 the opposite pattern (i.e. studies on vertebrates are less broadly contextualised than those on
389 invertebrates). Thus, the taxonomic bias we identified in the ecology and evolution literature
390 (and its persistence over time) probably occurs because of a more pervasive process—the idea
391 that certain taxa are more valuable than others.

392 The perception that vertebrates are “better” or more important than invertebrates, a view
393 widespread in society [49,50], likely influences scientists’ choice of research organisms [26].
394 This skewed valuation system, which is potentially used by gatekeepers (e.g. committees, journal
395 editors, reviewers) to ascertain research appeal, may then result in taxonomically biased
396 decisions. We argue that conducting science as a congeniality contest slows innovation [22,23],
397 curbs the generality of ecological and evolutionary knowledge [11,24], underexposes society to
398 animals that are ubiquitous in nature [45], and inhibits the formation of academics exploring
399 such animals (e.g. insect taxonomists [4,51]), further contributing to the problem in a vicious
400 cycle.

401 While several actions needed to reduce taxonomic bias involve the society at large [26],
402 we focus on possible interventions within academia to ameliorate this issue as they may be
403 readily implemented. First, we urge publishers, journals, and scientific societies to be more
404 transparent about their decisions regarding publications and funding. This includes
405 systematically collecting and publicly reporting information on the taxa investigated in submitted
406 and accepted manuscripts, as well as in funded projects. This would be a relatively simple task
407 by journals and funding institutions as authors or applicants can populate this information on
408 submission. Second, taxonomic diversity should be explicitly incorporated into the guidelines for
409 awards, grants, hiring, and publication decisions, mitigating implicit biases among decision-
410 makers. Third, targeted financial and publishing incentives should be established to support

411 researchers working on understudied taxa. Fourth, fomenting descriptive and fundamental
412 research, such as taxonomy [4,51] and natural history [52,53], is paramount to strengthen
413 hypothesis-driven and applied research, as one cannot test or apply undescribed organisms,
414 processes, and patterns. Although these propositions may be ambitious or even unrealistic,
415 similar criticisms were once directed at affirmative action policies aimed at increasing the
416 participation of underrepresented groups in academia. Many journals now state their
417 commitment to diversity, equity, and inclusion, yet none of those we examined explicitly
418 promote research on neglected taxa. We hope that institutions will consider implementing our
419 recommendations to foster a more taxonomically inclusive scientific community.

420

421 **Code and data accessibility**

422 All data and code used in this study are available at <https://zenodo.org/records/19451113>.

423

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427 from Altmetric (<https://www.altmetric.com>).

428

429 **Author contributions**

430 PP: conceptualisation, methodology, formal analysis, investigation, data curation, writing -
431 original draft, writing - review & editing, visualisation, project administration.

432 MK: conceptualisation, writing - review & editing.

433

434 **Competing interests**

435 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

436

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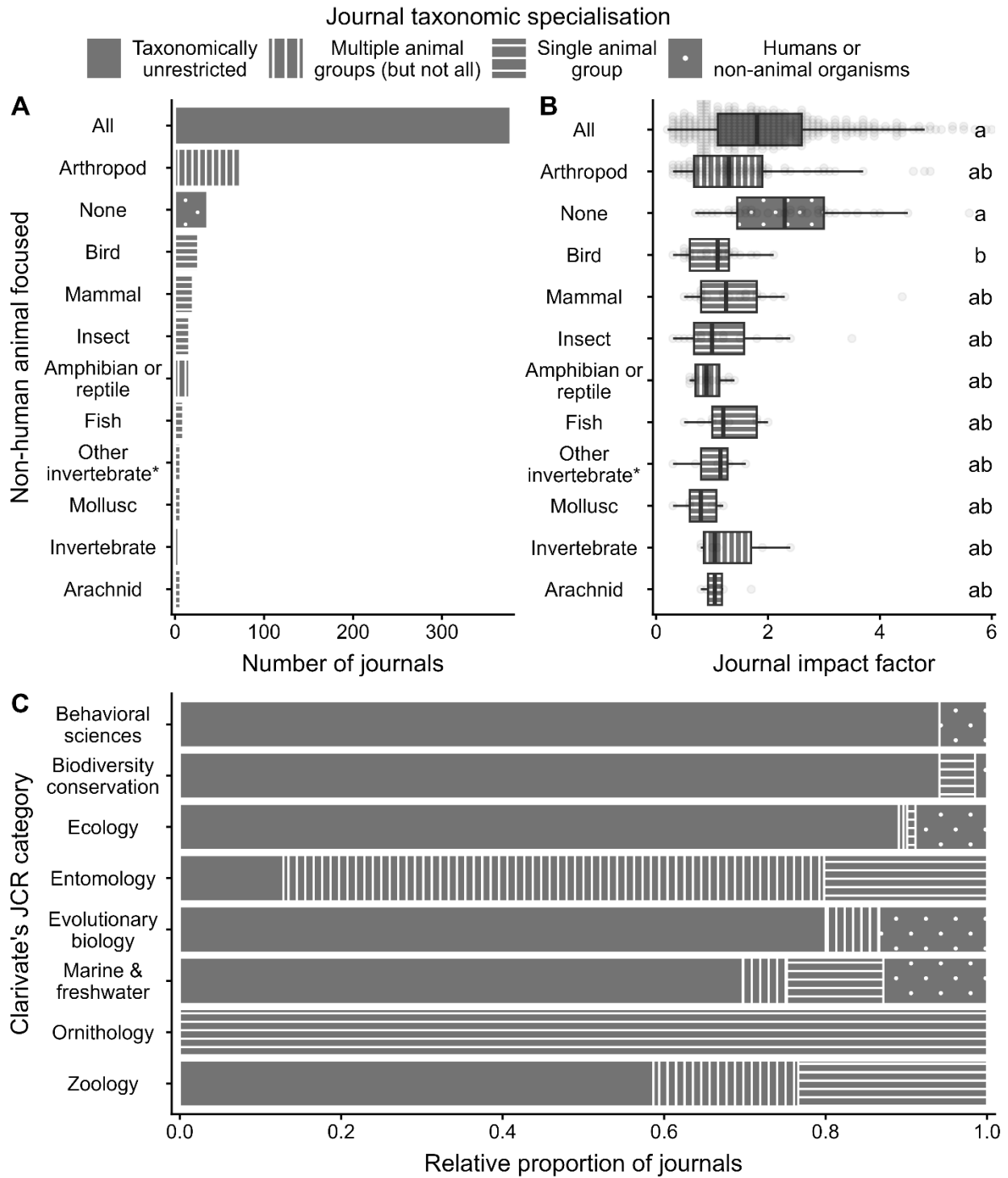
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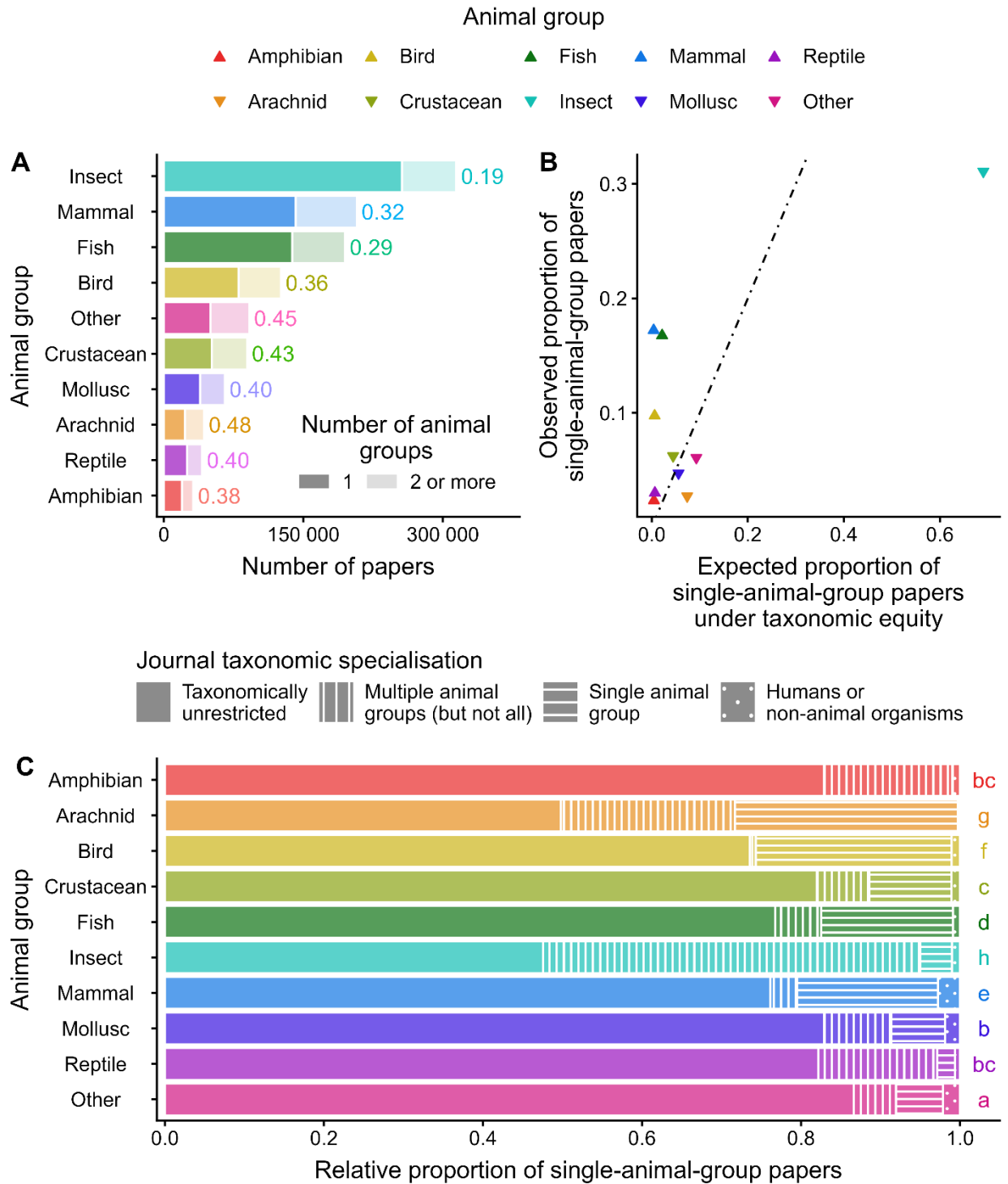
602

603 **Figure 1. Taxonomic specialisation of ecology and evolution journals.** Panel A shows the

604 number of journals focusing on each non-human animal taxon, with panel B showing the impact

605 factor of these journals (curtailed x -axis with 6 as maximum value; only taxa focused by at least
606 five journals are shown). Panel C shows the taxonomic specialisation of journals within each
607 Journal Citation Report (JCR) category. In panels A and B, “Other invertebrate*” refers to
608 invertebrates other than arachnids, crustaceans, insects, and molluscs. In panel B, dots represent
609 individual journals, boxes enclose 50% of the data (interquartile range), the whiskers contain
610 values up to 1.5 times the interquartile range, the solid line within the boxes represents the
611 median, and distinct letters represent statistical differences between groups of journals with
612 different focused taxa (z-values with $p < 0.05$ for all pairwise comparisons).

613



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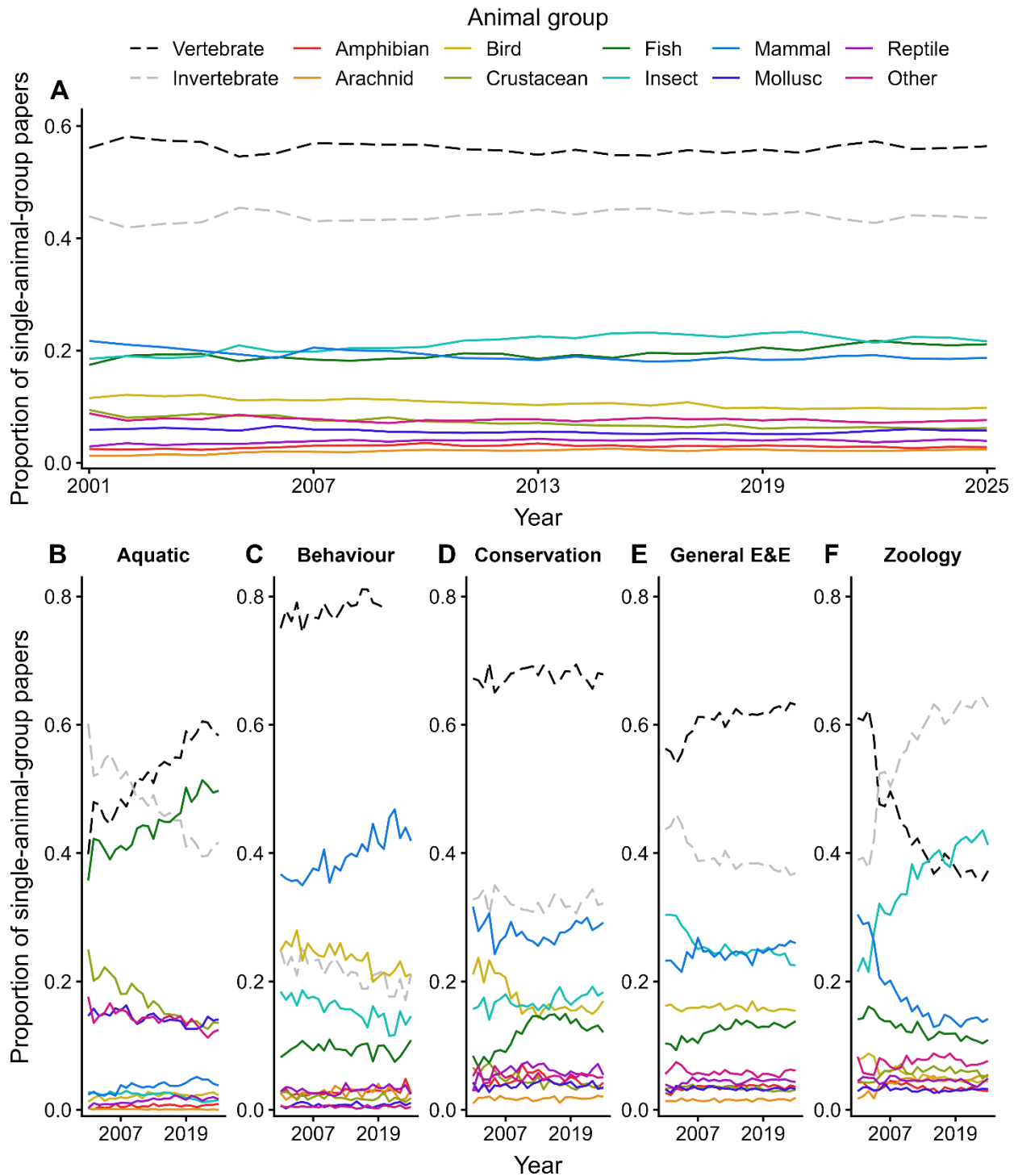
615 **Figure 2. Taxonomic patterns across all papers mentioning at least one animal group.** In

616 panel A, dark-coloured bars represent the number of papers solely on that animal group, light-

617 coloured bars represent the number of papers examining that animal group in conjunction with

618 other animals, and numbers beside these bars represent its proportion in relation to all papers on
619 that animal group. Panel B shows the relationship between the expected proportion of single-
620 animal-group papers under taxonomic equity (i.e. proportional to the species richness of animal
621 groups) and the observed corresponding proportion, where the dot-dashed line highlights a
622 perfect relationship; points above the line signify overrepresentation, while points below the line
623 signify underrepresentation. Panel C shows the relative proportion of single-animal-group papers
624 on each animal taxon published in each type of journal taxonomic specialisation, in which
625 distinct letters represent statistical differences between animal groups regarding their proportion
626 of such papers in taxonomically unrestricted journals (z-values with $p < 0.05$ for all pairwise
627 comparisons).

628

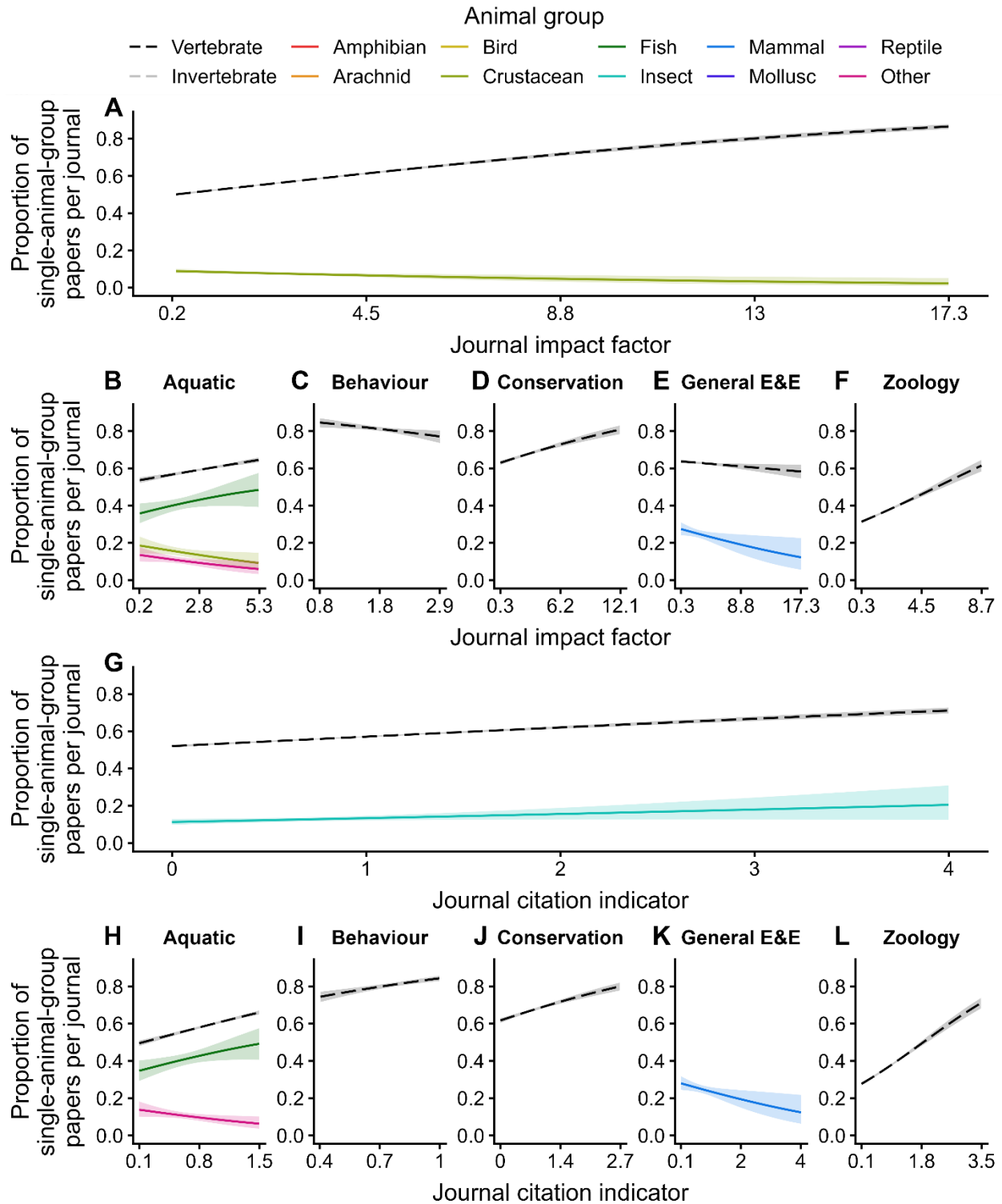


629

630 **Figure 3. Proportion of single-animal-group papers investigating each animal group over**

631 **time.** While panel A shows estimates for all journals together, panels B-F show journals divided

632 into five separate sets. See also the Supplementary file S1.



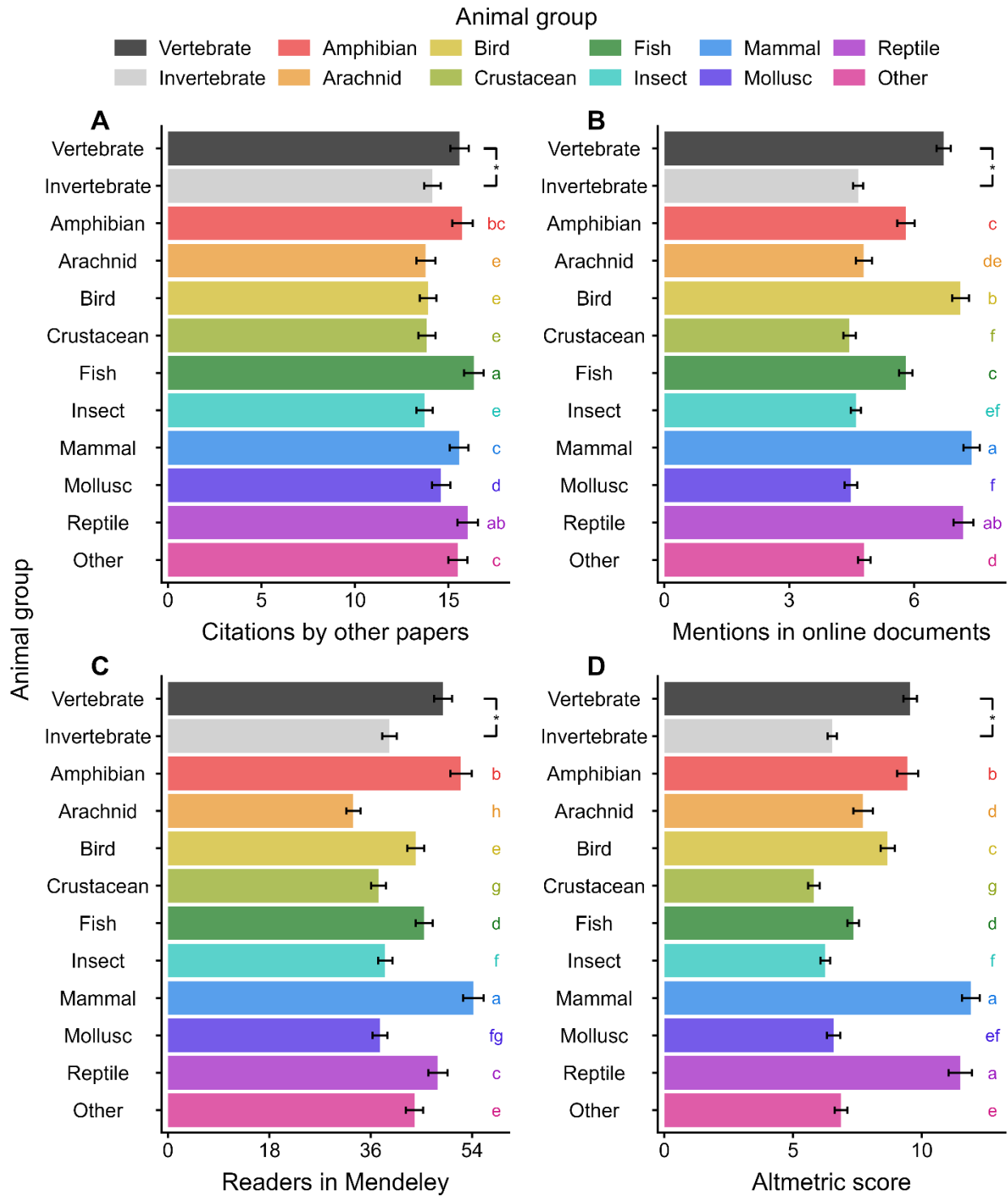
633

634 **Figure 4. Proportion of single-animal-group papers investigating each animal group in**

635 **relation to journal impact metrics.** The journal impact metric explored in panels A-F is journal

636 impact factor, while journal citation indicator is explored in panels G-L. Panels A and G show
637 trends for all journals in ecology and evolution together, while panels B-F and H-L do so within
638 journal sets. Note that only positive or negative relationships are shown.

639



640

641 **Figure 5. Attention metrics for papers on distinct animal groups.** Distinct letters represent

642 statistical differences among papers on specific animal groups within each panel (z-values with p

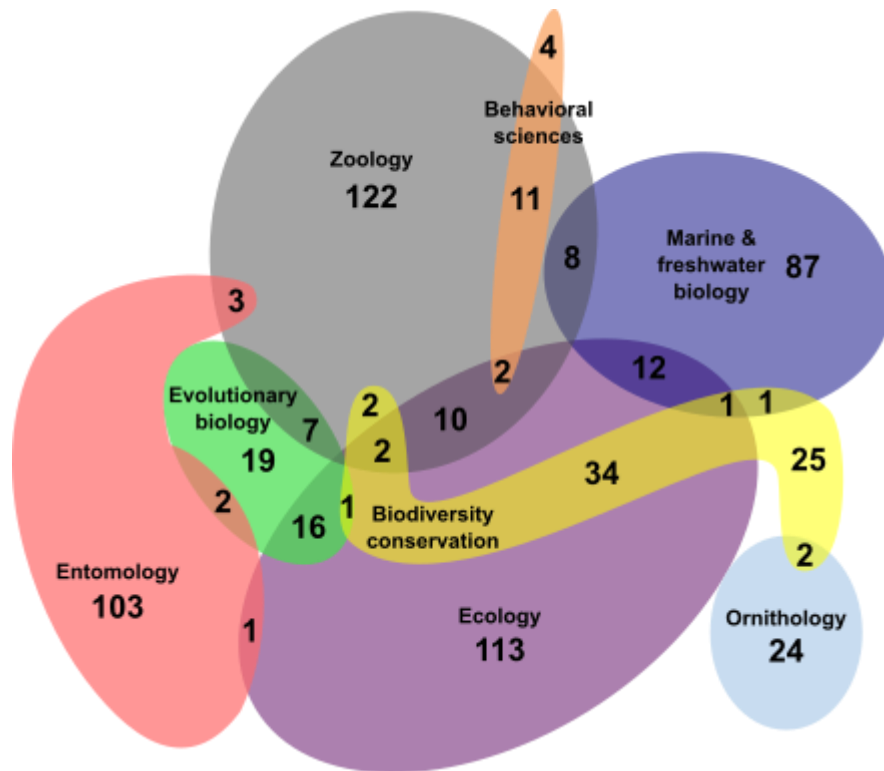
643 < 0.05 for all pairwise comparisons), while differences between papers on vertebrates vs.
644 invertebrates are shown with a star.

645

646

647 Supplementary material

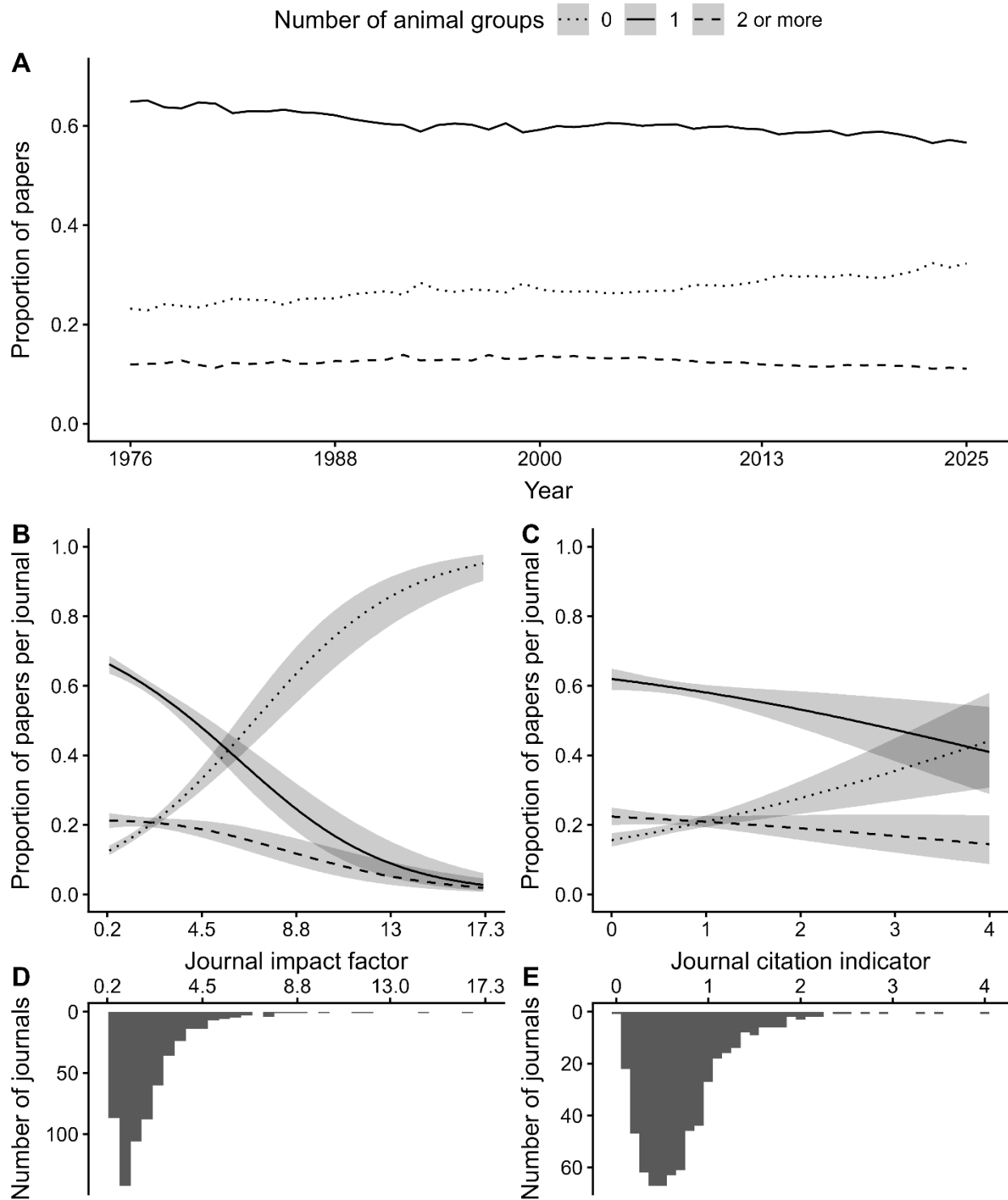
648 *Supplementary figures*



649

650 **Figure S1. Clarivate's Journal Citation Report (JCR) classification of assessed journals.**

651 Numbers represent the number of journals within each set combination.



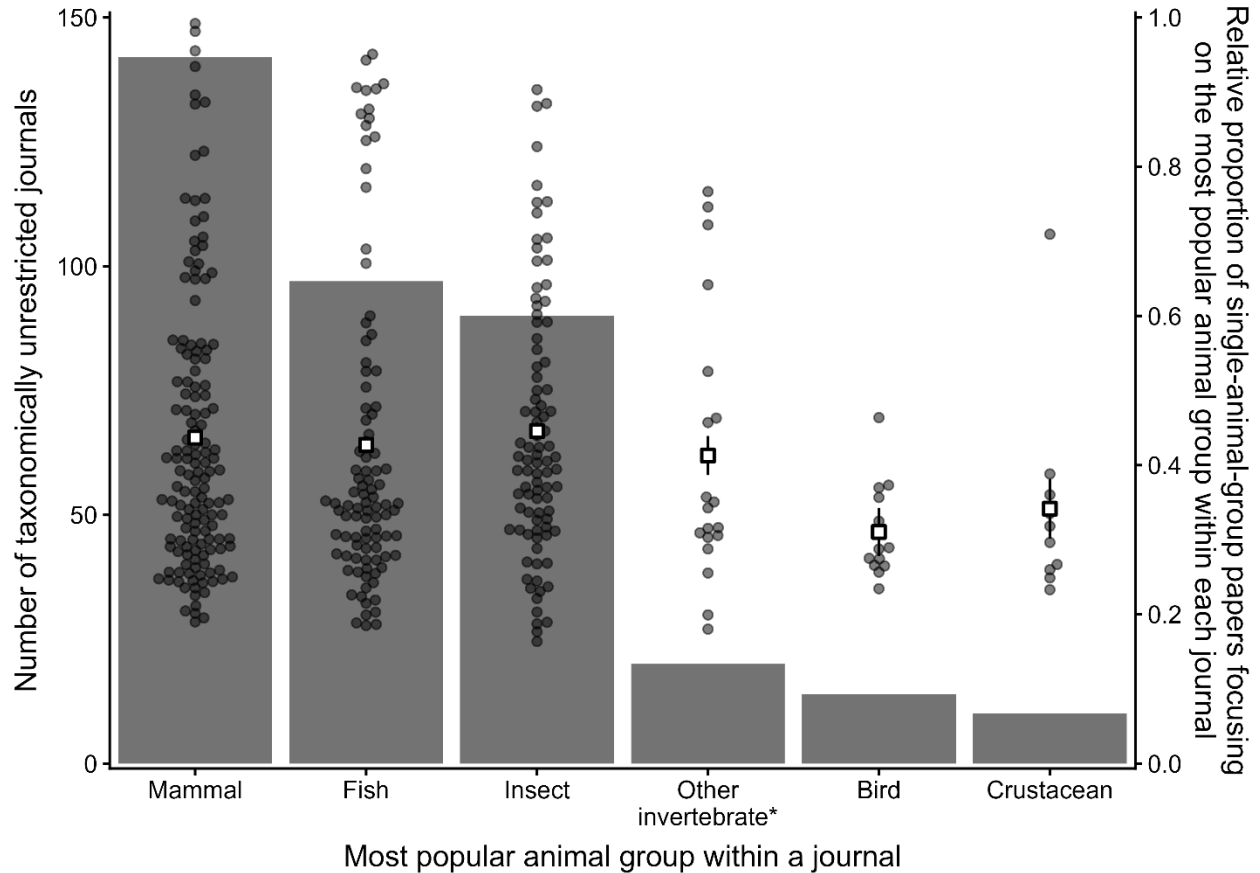
652

653 **Figure S2. Number of animal groups examined in papers in ecology and evolution.** Panel A

654 shows the proportion of papers on distinct numbers of animal taxa investigated from over the last

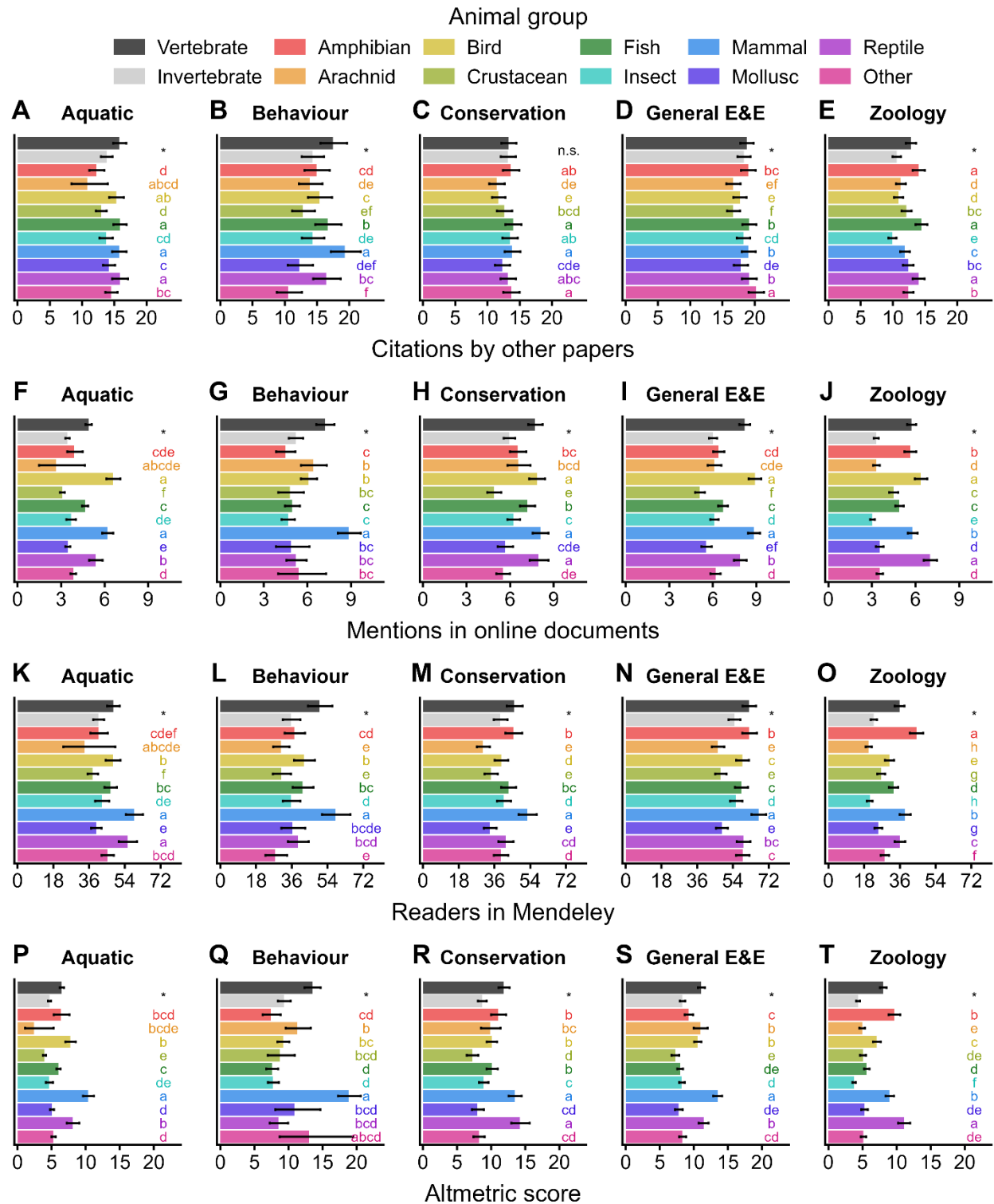
655 50 years (1976-2025). Panels B and C show the mean proportion of papers per journal on distinct

656 numbers of animal taxa investigated collectively over the last five years (2021-2025) by journal
657 impact factor and journal citation indicator, respectively. Panels D and E show the distribution of
658 journal impact factor and journal citation indicator in 2024, respectively.



660

661 **Figure S3. Most popular animal groups within journals.** Bars represent the number of
 662 taxonomically unrestricted journals for which an animal group was the most frequently
 663 investigated. Dots represent the proportion of single-animal-group papers focusing on the most
 664 popular animal group in each journal, while squares represent the mean of these estimates per
 665 most popular animal group, with whiskers encompassing its 95% confidence interval. “Other
 666 invertebrate*” refers to invertebrates other than arachnids, crustaceans, insects, and molluscs.



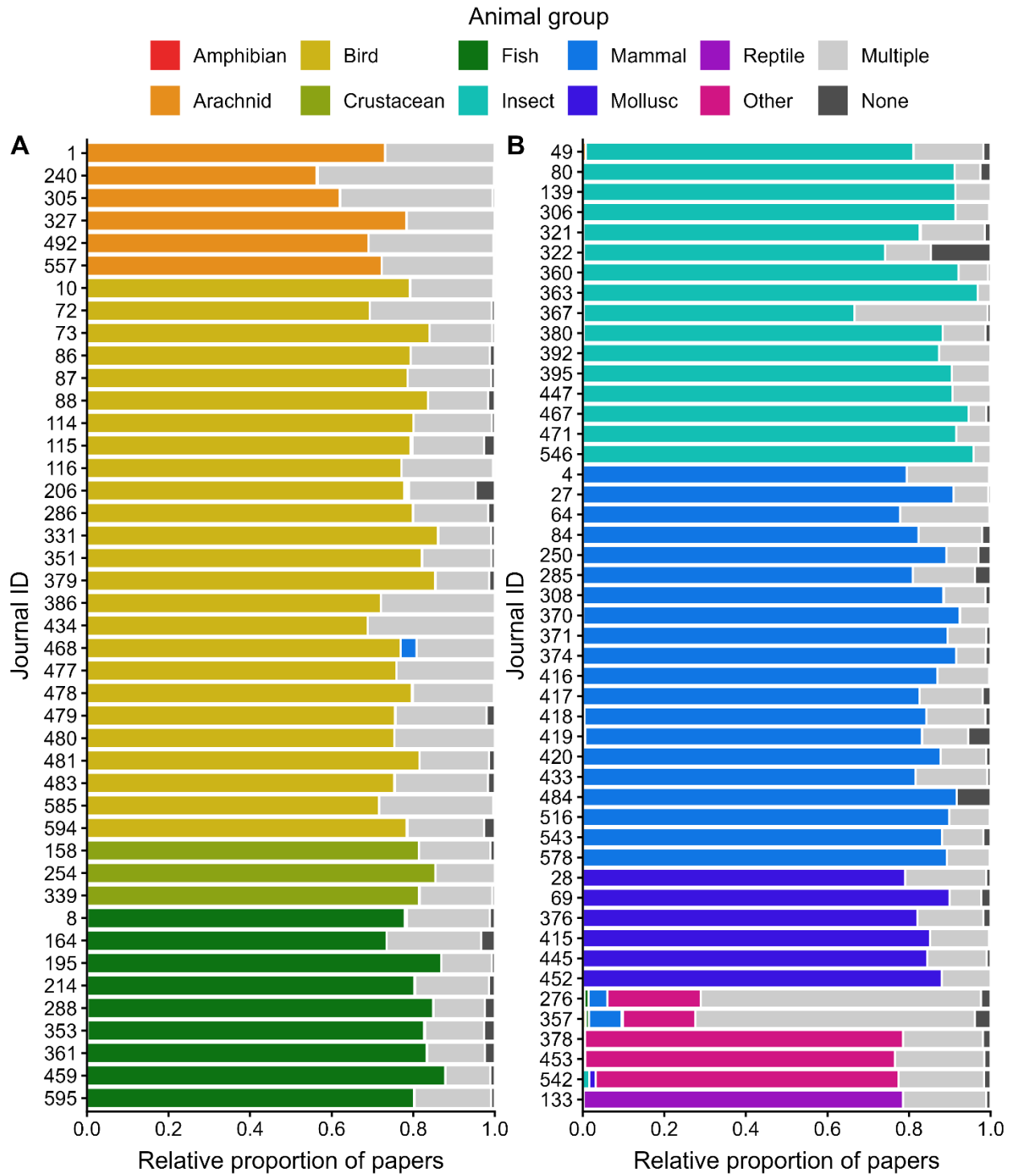
667

668 **Figure S4. Attention metrics for papers on distinct animal groups within journal sets.**

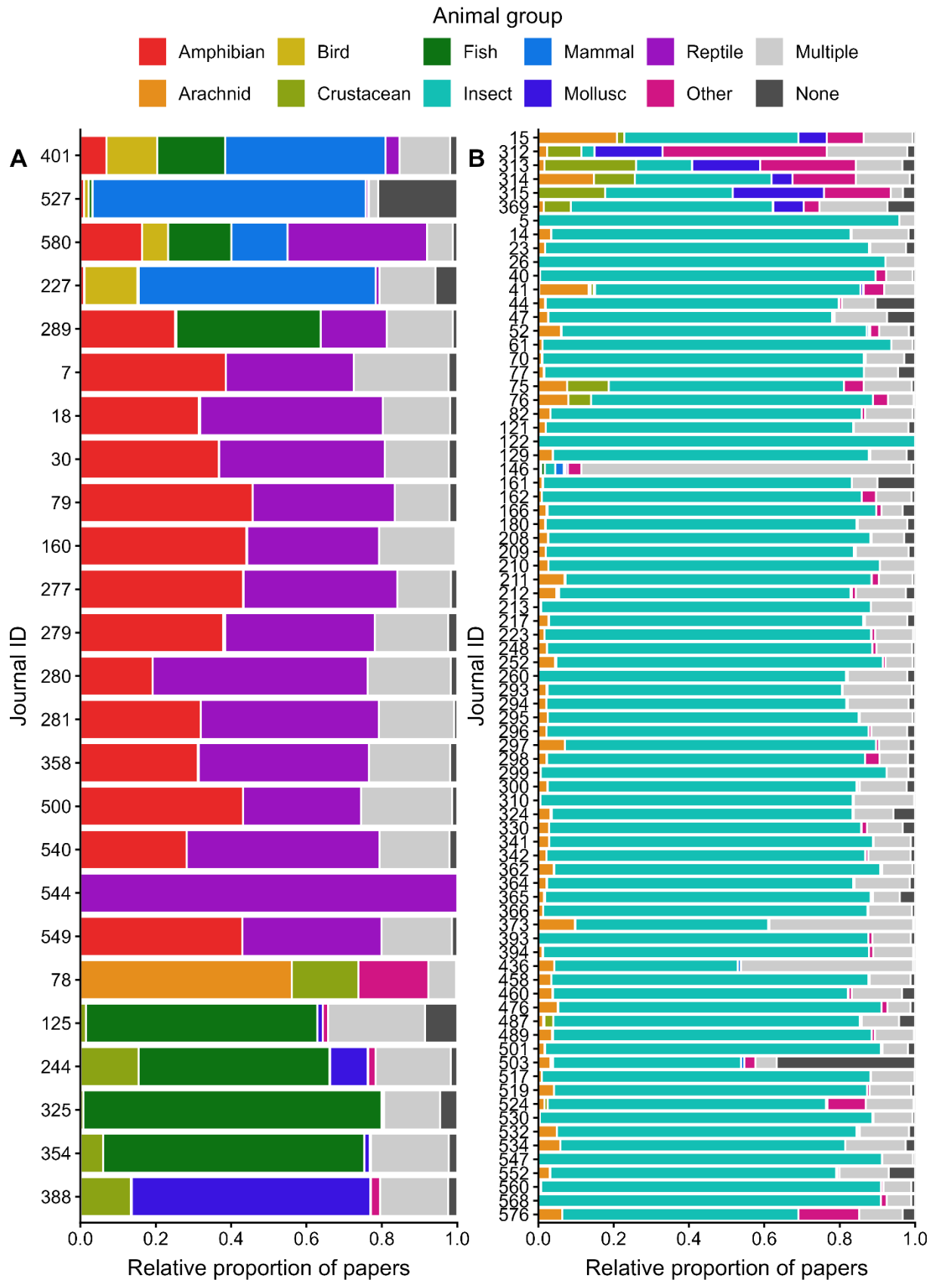
669 Distinct letters represent statistical differences among papers on specific animal groups within

670 each panel (z-values with $p < 0.05$ for all pairwise comparisons), while differences between
671 papers on vertebrates vs. invertebrates are shown with a star.

672



675 **Figure S5. Taxonomic focus of papers published in journals specialised in one animal**
676 **group.** Panel A shows journals specialised in arachnids, birds, crustaceans, or fish, while panel B
677 shows remaining journals.



679 **Figure S6. Taxonomic focus of papers published in journals specialised in multiple animal**

680 **groups.** Panel A shows journals that do not publish research on insects, while panel B shows

681 journals that publish research on insects.

682

683 Supplementary tables

684 **Table S1. Examples of how papers were manually classified regarding their taxonomic**

685 **focus.** Terms in red highlight organisms mentioned in papers.

Details of specific papers	Focused animal taxa	Number of animal groups identified
Buchsbaum & Morse [54] compared the behaviour of spiderlings released in the field with those fed in the laboratory with fruit flies .	Arachnids, insects	Two or more
Bochkov & O'Connor [55] analysed the phylogeny and host associations of certain mites and murines .	Arachnids, mammals	Two or more
Eraud et al. [56] injected sheep red blood cells (SRBC, a common method to represent an immunological challenge) to understand the cost of immune responses on collared doves (<i>Streptopelia decaocto</i>).	Birds, mammals	Two or more
Suzuki [57] investigated the production of alarm calls in great tits (<i>Parus major</i>) by exposing their nests to three predator species (snakes , crows , and martens).	Birds, mammals, reptiles	Two or more
Tchana et al. [58] assessed the effects of <i>Protocalliphora</i> larvae on the plumage colours of blue tits (<i>Cyanistes caeruleus</i>).	Birds, insects	Two or more
Milinski [59] showed that three-spined sticklebacks prefer prey of familiar size by conducting experiments with water fleas (<i>Daphnia magna</i>) of various sizes as prey items.	Crustaceans, Fish	Two or more
Coop et al. [60] observed that black bears (<i>Ursus americanus</i>) forage on aggregations of cutworm moths (<i>Euxoa axiliaris</i>).	Insects, mammals	Two or more
Cross & Jackson [61] tested problem-solving skills of nine species of jumping spiders , mentioning that one of these species specialises on preying mosquitoes .	Arachnid	One
Latta et al. [62] presented evidence of ivory-billed woodpeckers (<i>Campephilus principalis</i>) in Louisiana despite the US Fish and Wildlife Service suggesting that this species was extinct.	Birds	One
Mercado et al. [63] explored song copying in humpback whales , mentioning in that song learning in birds is well understood.	Mammals	One
Iriarte et al. [64] investigated the diet and behaviours of pumas (<i>Felis concolor</i>), finding that these animals feed from ungulates and compete with jaguars (<i>Panthera onca</i>).	Mammals	One
Olson et al. [65] investigated patterns in the transcriptome of a tapeworm species (<i>Hymenolepis microstoma</i>).	Other invertebrate	One
García et al. [66] assessed manure (of unmentioned animals) for management strategies.	-	Zero

686

687

688 **Table S2. Evaluation metrics for the algorithm used in our study to classify the taxonomic**
689 **focus of studies in ecology and evolution.** TP, TN, FP, and FN stand for true positives, true
690 negatives, false positives, and false negatives, respectively.

Animal group	TP	TN	FP	FN	Total	Accuracy	Precision	Sensitivity	Specificity	F1 score
Amphibian	49	1760	6	0	1815	0.997	0.891	1.000	0.997	0.942
Arachnid	55	1758	2	0	1815	0.999	0.965	1.000	0.999	0.982
Bird	194	1600	21	0	1815	0.988	0.902	1.000	0.987	0.949
Crustacean	107	1702	4	2	1815	0.997	0.964	0.982	0.998	0.973
Fish	204	1583	23	5	1815	0.985	0.899	0.976	0.986	0.936
Insect	407	1390	16	2	1815	0.990	0.962	0.995	0.989	0.978
Mammal	260	1505	48	2	1815	0.972	0.844	0.992	0.969	0.912
Mollusc	82	1730	3	0	1815	0.998	0.965	1.000	0.998	0.982
Reptile	62	1742	8	3	1815	0.994	0.886	0.954	0.995	0.919
Other	126	1681	6	2	1815	0.996	0.955	0.984	0.996	0.969

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