

1 **Representation of global change drivers across biodiversity datasets**

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18 **Abstract**

19 Global change has altered biodiversity and impacted ecosystem functions and services around
20 the planet. Understanding the effects of anthropogenic drivers like human use and climate
21 change on biodiversity change has become a key challenge for science and policy. However,
22 our knowledge of biodiversity change is limited by the available data and their biases. Over land
23 and sea, we test the representation of three worldwide and multi-taxa biodiversity databases
24 (Living Planet, BioTIME and PREDICTS) across spatial and temporal variation in global change
25 and across the tree of life. We find that variation in global change drivers is better captured over
26 space than over time around the world and across the previous 150 years. Spatial representation
27 of global change was as high as 78% in the marine realm and 31% on land. Our findings suggest
28 ways to improve the use of existing biodiversity data and better target future ecological
29 monitoring.

30

31 **One sentence summary**

32 Biodiversity data capture most of the variation in global change but filling the remaining data
33 gaps will allow us to better understand ongoing change and predict future trajectories for Earth's
34 biota.

35

36 **Introduction**

37 Human activities are reshaping the planet from the tropics to the poles and across land and sea¹⁻
38 ³, and the Earth's biodiversity is shifting in response⁴. Parallel with this rapid biotic reorganization,
39 an ecological data revolution is underway with more open-access data available now than ever
40 before^{5,6}. Large-scale data compilations (e.g., Living Planet⁷, BioTIME⁸, PREDICTS⁹, GBIF¹⁰,
41 TetraDensity¹¹) have been analyzed to test general patterns of biodiversity change across the
42 world and under impacts of anthropogenic drivers^{4,12-16}. Such studies have revealed a wide

43 spectrum of biodiversity change, including both increases and decreases of species richness
44 and abundance, with trends quantified over time¹⁷⁻²⁰, space^{16,21} and taxa^{22,23}. The biodiversity
45 data underlying many of these syntheses (e.g., time series, occurrence records and space-for-
46 time surveys) have already been shown to be biased geographically and taxonomically²⁴⁻²⁷.
47 Surprisingly, much less attention has been given to whether the data are also biased with respect
48 to the overall variation in global change drivers. Yet, knowing to what degree the sampling of
49 biodiversity databases captures global change is vital for interpreting results derived from data
50 syntheses and identifying future data gaps to be filled. The next stage of biodiversity syntheses,
51 scenarios and conservation goals will be brought together in the Convention on Biological
52 Diversity's Post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework. We argue that post-2020, biodiversity
53 science needs to move towards improved representation in biodiversity data, including the
54 heterogeneous distribution and sampling of global change.

55
56 Insights from large-scale data syntheses inform trajectories of past, current and future change
57 in the Earth's biota^{4,7,28,29}, as well as the development of indicators for global conservation
58 policies^{30,31}. To upscale the findings of syntheses of local-scale data to estimates of global or
59 mean biodiversity change, the underlying data should be representative across multiple
60 dimensions: space, time, taxonomic variation, as well as variation in the drivers of biodiversity
61 change³²⁻³⁵. There is already recognition of the biases associated with space and
62 geography^{24,26,32,34}, time and historical baselines^{24,26,36,37} and taxonomy^{33,37,38}. In contrast, sampling
63 biases with respect to drivers of change are rarely emphasized in the existing literature (but see
64 ³⁹ for spatio-taxonomic biases in North American butterfly occurrence records). At smaller spatial
65 scales, sampling biases are well-documented in national monitoring schemes and citizen
66 science data (e.g., showing over-representation of urban areas⁴⁰ or under-representation of
67 regions undergoing rapid climate change³⁹). In contrast, at the larger spatial scales of data

68 syntheses, sampling biases associated with global change drivers remain unknown. Such
69 knowledge gaps compromise our ability to draw broad inferences from the outcomes of
70 syntheses and to quantify the shape of the relationship between driver intensity, such as extent
71 of land-use change, and biodiversity, in order to identify ecological tipping points^{35,41-43}. Thus, to
72 interpret the findings of any data synthesis, we need to consider if the underlying data are
73 sampled from sites with the full range of different driver intensities, or rather mostly include
74 heavily impacted sites or intact wilderness areas^{4,35,44}. Understanding the representativeness of
75 biodiversity data across global change axes is essential to interpret estimates of regional or
76 global-scale biodiversity change from compilations of local-scale data.

77

78 Here, we quantify global change representation in biodiversity databases, present our
79 perspective on capturing the representativeness of biodiversity data in large-scale syntheses
80 and discuss implications for interpreting their findings. We focus on four aspects of
81 representativeness – global change intensity over space, global change intensity over time,
82 geography, and taxonomy. Particularly, we highlight the patterns in spatial and temporal
83 sampling of global change drivers as under-explored types of bias. Our perspective serves two
84 important purposes: 1) to highlight the variation in global change drivers that is already captured
85 by global datasets and hence the driver impacts that we can quantify in ongoing studies, and 2)
86 to identify the gaps in data representativeness that future studies, monitoring and data
87 mobilization actions should target. By building biodiversity databases that are more
88 representative of multiple axes of natural and anthropogenic variation, we can improve
89 predictions of the global state and trends of biodiversity.

90

91 We combined three of the largest, currently existing, open-access biodiversity databases (Living
92 Planet⁷ - marine and terrestrial; BioTIME⁸ - marine and terrestrial; and PREDICTS⁹ - terrestrial)

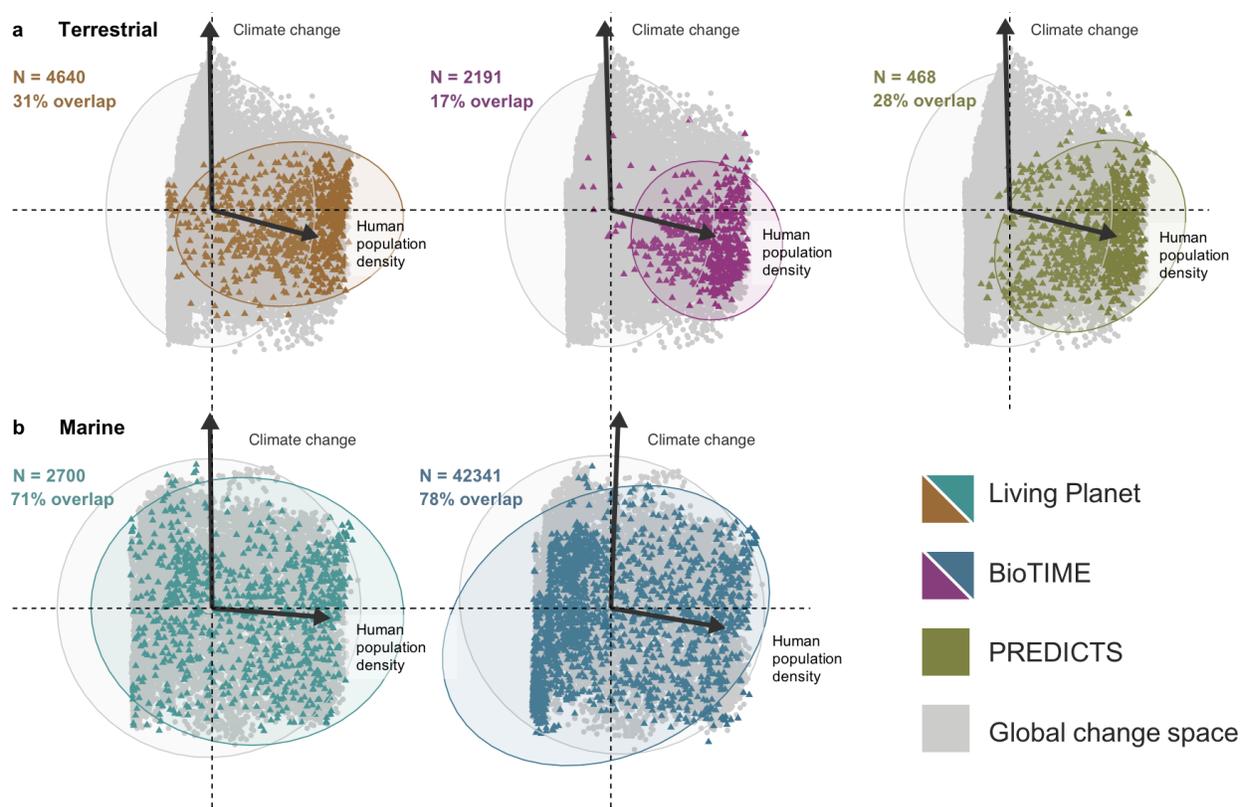
93 with maps of global change drivers³. To measure how well each database captures variation in
94 global change intensity over space, we first estimated driver variation around the world. We used
95 data indicating the five big drivers of climate change, human use, human population density,
96 pollution and invasive species pressure³ - and determined the 'global change space' using the
97 dominant orthogonal axes of change (similar to the concept of trait or niche space⁴⁵). We then
98 mapped the sampling sites within each database onto the global change space to highlight the
99 sampled region, as well as regions with under- or over- representation. To quantify the
100 representation of global change intensity over time, we focused on climate change and land
101 cover change across terrestrial sites with time series data from the Living Planet and BioTIME
102 databases. At each site, we compared the amount of change that occurred before relative to
103 during the periods of biodiversity monitoring. To estimate geographic representation, we
104 mapped site locations of the three databases and determined sampling intensity across a spatial
105 grid covering the planet. Finally, to estimate taxonomic representation, we calculated the
106 percentage of known species included in the three databases.

107

108 **Biodiversity data capture spatial variation in global change space at sea, but not on land**

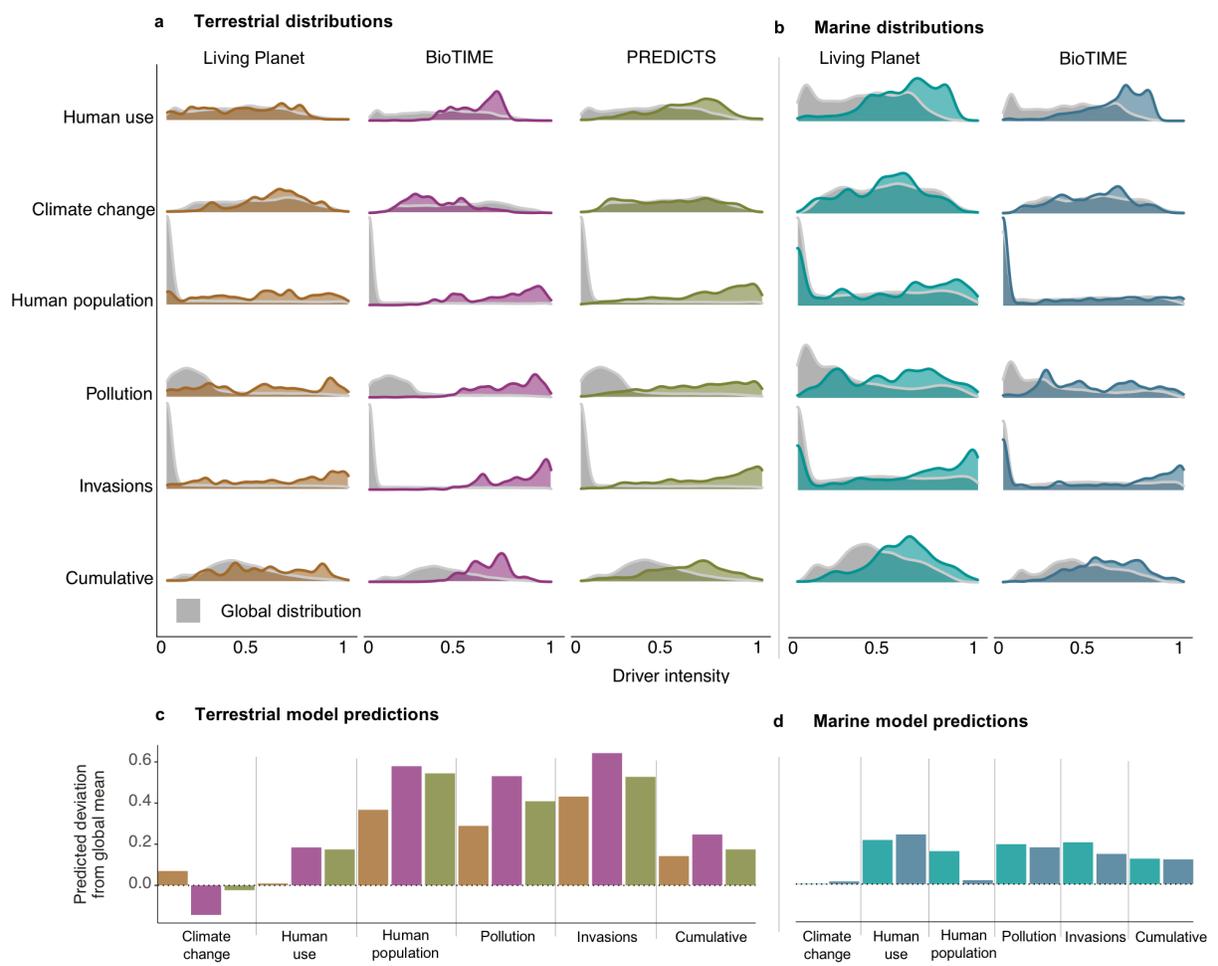
109 Overall, we found that biodiversity data from the Living Planet, BioTIME and PREDICTS
110 databases capture a surprisingly high amount of the spatial variation in global change intensity
111 around the planet, especially in the marine realm (Figure 1). There was between 71% and 78%
112 overlap between global change space and the variation sampled by biodiversity databases in
113 the marine realm, versus 17% to 31% in the terrestrial realm (Figure 1). Among the five global
114 change drivers we tested, climate change and pollution in the marine realm were sampled the
115 most representatively, suggesting that we can test the effects of these drivers with higher
116 confidence and the underlying data could be used when creating global scenarios for the future
117 (Figure 2, Extended Data Table S1). The terrestrial global change space was less well sampled

118 and the highest overlap with global change was 31% for the Living Planet Database (Figure 1).
 119 In fact, all three databases predominantly sampled places with medium to high human use and
 120 lacked data from regions with low land-use change and pollution. Similarly, across both realms,
 121 but particularly strongly over land, all databases were lacking sites that have experienced high
 122 amounts of climate change, reflecting geographic gaps in data collection in places like the Arctic
 123 (Figure 4). Following experimental design principles, manipulative studies to determine treatment
 124 effects often include a range of treatment levels from low to high in order to have sufficient
 125 statistical power⁴⁶. We propose extending experimental design thinking to syntheses of
 126 observation studies that aim to attribute change to a driver by ensuring data are included from
 127 sites experiencing a range of driver intensities.



128
 129 **Figure 1. Biodiversity data capture spatial variation in global change space better in the**
 130 **marine versus terrestrial realm.** Figure shows Principal Component Analysis of the terrestrial

131 (panel **a**) and marine (panel **b**) magnitudes of human use, climate change, human population
 132 density, pollution and invasion potential across the locations of the Living Planet, BioTIME and
 133 PREDICTS databases as well as one million randomly sampled locations across the full extent
 134 of the globe (in grey). PCA axes omitted for visual clarity. Arrows show direction and magnitude
 135 of PCA scores. Human use, pollution and invasion potential were correlated with human
 136 population density. For details on the global change driver layers, see Bowler et al. 2020.
 137 Annotations show sample size (N) and the percentage overlap between the 95% prediction
 138 ellipses covered by random sampling of global change space and the variation in global change
 139 sampled by the different databases.



140

141 **Figure 2. Higher magnitudes of global change drivers are overrepresented in biodiversity**
142 **data.** Panels **a** and **b** show distributions of the raw global change driver data from random
143 sampling spanning the globe and sites from existing biodiversity databases. Panels **c** and **d**
144 show effect sizes of general linear models comparing the magnitude of global change drivers
145 (response variable) across the Living Planet, BioTIME and PREDICTS databases and a random
146 sampling of the planet (categorical explanatory variable). Positive effect sizes indicate higher
147 average magnitudes at the sampled sites within databases than in the random global sampling,
148 and negative effect sizes indicate lower average magnitudes. Because of the large sample sizes
149 included in the statistical models, the 95% credible intervals around the effect sizes were too
150 small to be visualized in the figure.

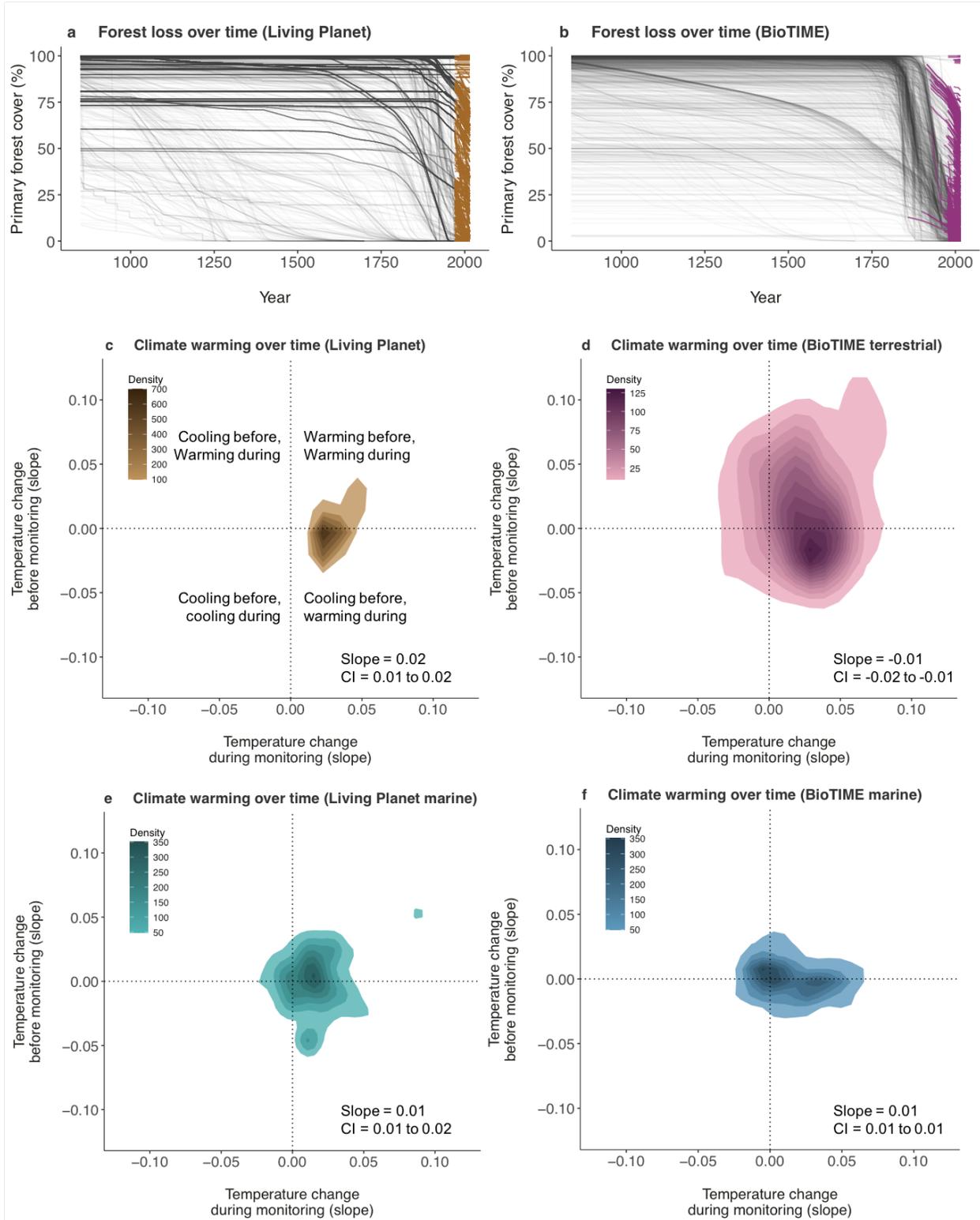
151
152 **Biodiversity data often miss the temporal peaks of land cover change, but capture those**
153 **of climate change**

154 We found mismatches between when global change occurred and the timing of biodiversity data
155 collection, which were more frequent for land-use change than for climate change (Figure 3).
156 While it is well-known that peak land-use conversion often predates ecological monitoring by
157 centuries to millennia (e.g., ^{1,47,48}), studies rarely quantify the magnitude of this mismatch or
158 account for the long-term trajectory or historic baseline (but see ^{13,21}). For drivers such as forest
159 loss, the peak often occurred decades to centuries before the start of most biodiversity
160 monitoring (Figure 3a-b, ¹³). In contrast, for climate warming, a driver that is more pronounced in
161 more recent decades, we found that the majority of the Living Planet and BioTIME time series
162 (76% and 56% of terrestrial time series, and 64% and 59% of marine time series, respectively)
163 have experienced larger magnitudes of warming during the period of monitoring when compared
164 to the same length of time preceding data collection. Thus, biodiversity data better captured

165 contemporary warming relative to other global change drivers (Figure 3c-f). Our results suggest
166 that weaker or stronger relationships between biodiversity time series and drivers such as forest
167 loss and climate change likely reflect differences in the time periods when each driver was most
168 intense.

169

170 The sampled variation in global change driver intensity over time can influence the strength of
171 relationships detected in attribution analyses^{13,35,43} and can obscure assessment of biodiversity
172 trends in ecosystems with tipping points⁴⁹. Monitoring schemes that start well after the peak
173 magnitude of a global change driver will likely underestimate that driver's impact on
174 biodiversity³⁵. Equally, lagged biodiversity change might mean that the effects of land-use drivers
175 like forestry or agriculture persist decades after harvest or farming has ceased^{13,43}. These
176 interactions between lagged biodiversity responses to disturbance and temporal variability of
177 global change have produced heterogeneous and often non-linear biodiversity trends, as have
178 been reported for many taxa, including birds⁵⁰, moths²⁰ and wasps⁵¹. Additionally, analyses of
179 observational datasets with both short durations and little variation in global change intensity
180 over time have reduced statistical power and thus might fail to detect the effect of global change
181 drivers⁵². The temporal mismatch of ecological monitoring and global change drivers is hard to
182 alleviate because new data collection cannot fill historic data gaps. To move forward, we suggest
183 mobilizing as much existing data as possible and improving data accessibility, developing
184 methods to infer data we cannot observe and including baselines and variation in driver intensity
185 over time in statistical models.



186

187 **Figure 3. The majority of primary forest was lost by the time ecological monitoring began**

188 **whereas high magnitudes of climate warming predominantly occurred during the time**

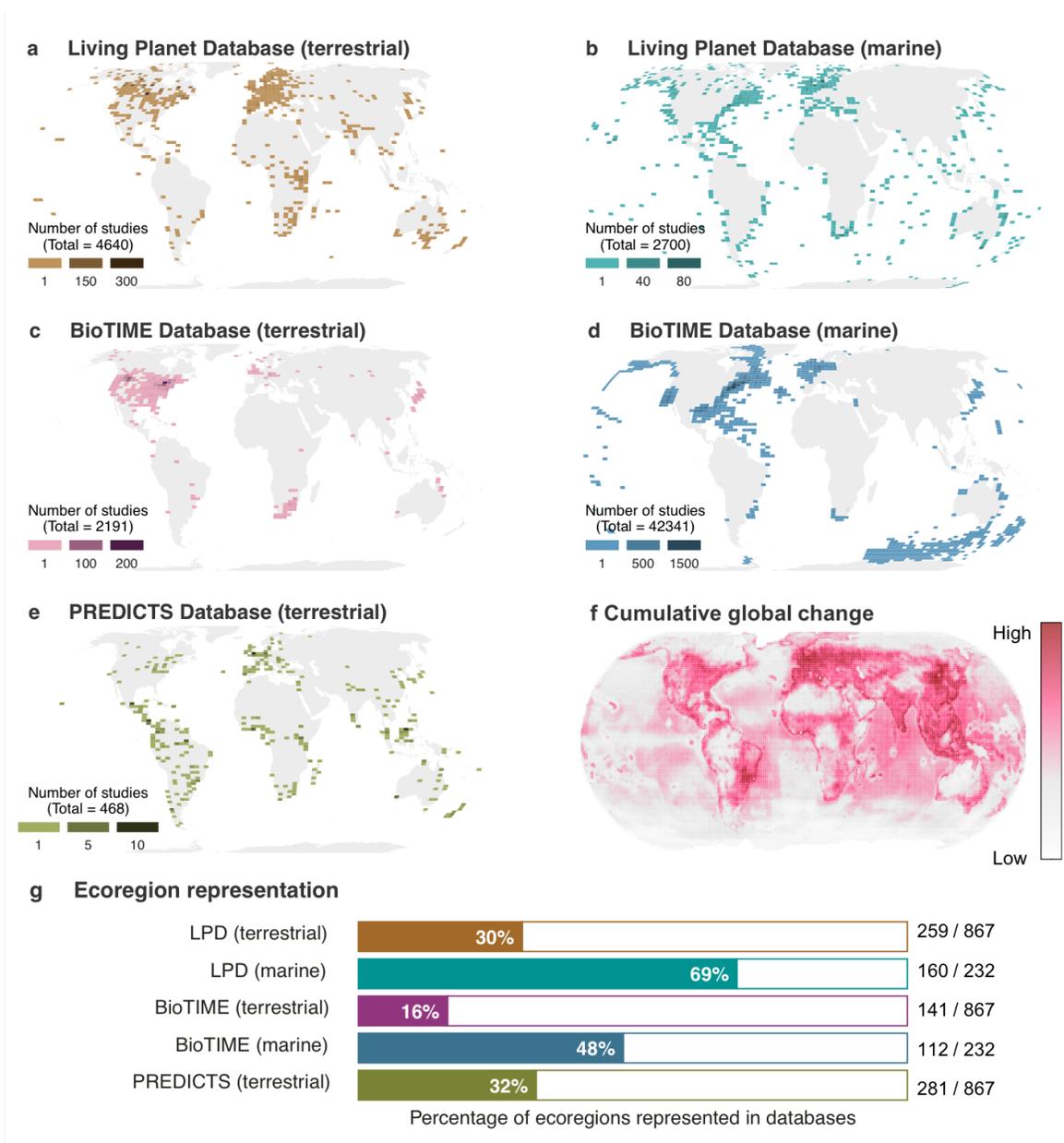
189 **series.** Panels **a** and **b** show the temporal trajectory of primary forest loss across sites part of
190 the Living Planet (N = 4640) and BioTIME (N = 2191) databases. The primary forest cover
191 estimates show proportions based on the LUH database⁴⁷ and were calculated for cells of
192 approximately ~96km² around the centerpoint of each site. Historic human use time series data
193 of sufficient duration were not available for the marine realm. The periods for comparison in
194 panels **c-e** were the same as the duration of each time series and were always more than five
195 years (for example for a time series starting in 2000 and ending in 2010, we used 1990-2000 as
196 the comparison period). Slope values on the axes of panels **c-e** show changes in temperature in
197 degrees Celsius per year, derived from general linear models estimating temperature as a
198 function of year. For the terrestrial realm, surface air temperature was obtained from the CRU TS
199 v4.05 database⁵³ and for the marine realm, the sea surface temperature data was extracted from
200 the NOAA Extended Reconstructed SST v5 database⁵⁴. Slope and credible interval annotations
201 on panels **c-e** show the posterior mean for the average temperature change in the period during
202 monitoring relative to before monitoring.

203

204 **Geographic gaps in biodiversity data do not always result in gaps in global change space**

205 Underrepresentation in geographic space did not directly translate into gaps in global change
206 space and thus an incomplete geographic sample can capture a surprising amount of variation
207 in global change driver intensity (Figures 1-2, 4). Geographic gaps exist across all three
208 databases we tested, particularly in tropical and high latitudes and in the deep sea. Regions
209 including Northern Asia, Africa and South America had fewer sample sites than Europe and North
210 America across all three databases. For example, there were twice as many European records
211 as there were South American ones in the PREDICTS database, despite South America being
212 almost twice the size of Europe. Europe and North America not only had more sampling across
213 space, but repeat sampling was also more frequent (Figure 4a-e). Ecoregions in the marine realm

214 were better represented than those in the terrestrial realm, with data sampled in 69% and 48%
215 of marine ecoregions in the Living Planet and BioTIME databases, compared with the same in
216 16%, 30% and 32% of terrestrial ecoregions in the Living Planet, BioTIME and PREDICTS
217 databases, respectively (Figure 4). Geographic biases are well-known caveats of biodiversity
218 data (e.g., ^{24,26,55}) and can be particularly problematic when extrapolating from patchy local-scale
219 data to broad macroecological patterns⁴. For example, studies of insect biodiversity trends from
220 a limited sample of geographic locations have found steep declines (e.g. 63 sites in Germany
221 and 73 sites in predominantly North America and Europe in ^{56,57}, respectively), whereas studies
222 from larger and more geographically representative datasets have found no net change⁵⁸. This
223 nuance around the source locations of biodiversity data is often lost in media and public
224 communication of population and biodiversity change, sometimes leading to misinterpretation
225 of local declines as ubiquitous worldwide⁵⁹⁻⁶². We suggest targeting future ecological monitoring
226 to fill in the gaps in not just geographic but also global change space to better capture and
227 communicate the variety of ways in which humans are altering biodiversity around the world.



228

229 **Figure 4. Geographic and ecoregion gaps in biodiversity data exist in both the marine and**

230 **terrestrial realms but they do not directly translate to gaps in global change variation. Maps**

231 on panels **a-e** show locations of sites from the Living Planet, BioTIME and PREDICTS databases

232 with darker colors indicating higher numbers of sites. Panel **f** shows the intensity of cumulative

233 global change (climate change, human use, human population density, pollution and invasion

234 pressure combined) across the terrestrial and marine realms, based on³. Ecoregions are based

235 on the classification of ⁶³. Number annotations on panel **f** show the number of ecoregions
236 represented by at least one record and the total number of marine and terrestrial ecoregions on
237 Earth.

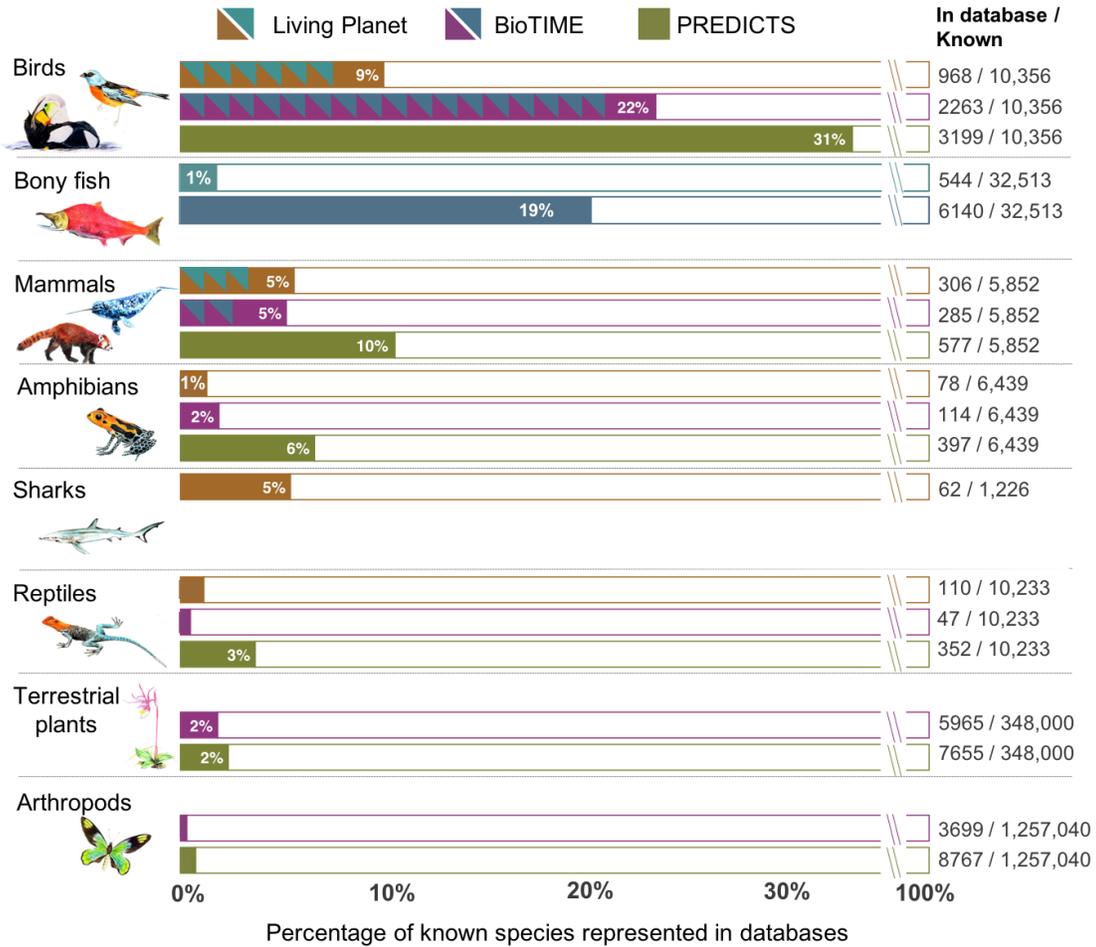
238

239 **More and less well represented taxa may respond differently to global change drivers**

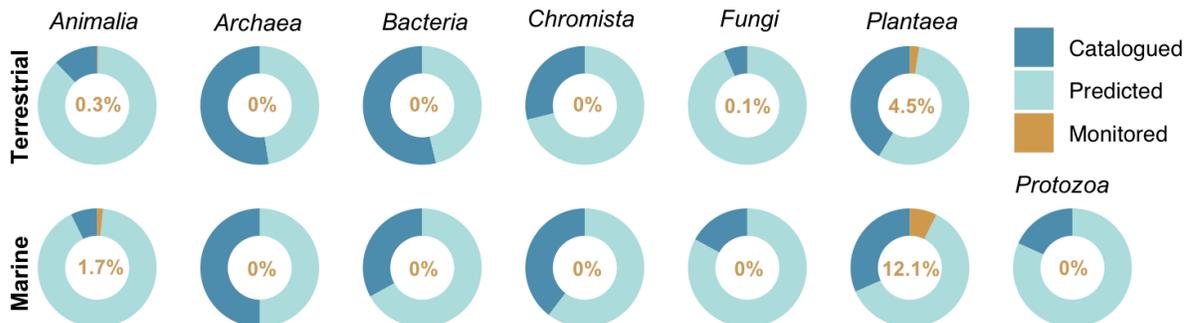
240 Taxonomic representation in biodiversity analyses could influence the detected global change
241 responses, with certain taxa being more or less sensitive to global change⁶⁴⁻⁶⁷. For example,
242 longer-lived species may have greater lagged responses to global change drivers such as land-
243 use change when compared with species with shorter generation times¹³. We found that birds
244 were the best-, and arthropods the worst-represented taxa across the Living Planet, BioTIME
245 and PREDICTS databases (Figure 5), as commonly found in ecological datasets^{8,9,65}. Recently,
246 invertebrates and in particular insects have been highlighted as a taxon experiencing potential
247 steep declines in abundance and biomass^{56,57}, yet such findings are confounded by the general
248 paucity of invertebrate data⁶⁰⁻⁶² (but see ⁶⁸ for a recent effort in compiling insect data). In contrast,
249 birds are the focus of many national and international monitoring schemes and for many species,
250 research has established how populations are changing over time⁶⁹. Concurrently, there are
251 frequent calls for better sampling across the tree of life to capture the variety of ways in which
252 species from the smallest ant to the biggest sequoias are being impacted by the Anthropocene
253 (e.g.,⁷⁰⁻⁷⁶). Without representative taxonomic coverage, we could be failing to characterize the
254 full balance between the winners and losers of particular global change driver⁷⁷. While our
255 findings show that the spatial variation in global change is broadly well-sampled by the three
256 databases we tested (Figure 1), it is important to highlight that the majority of those biodiversity
257 records are for mammals, birds and plants. Consequently, global change space remains poorly
258 represented for less studied taxa like terrestrial invertebrates for which representation was only
259 3.2% for time-series data (BioTIME) and 29.4% for space-for-time data (PREDICTS, Extended

260 Data Figure 1). Extending findings from the limited representation of the planet's diversity to
 261 cross-taxa scenarios of future change should be done with caution and placed in the context of
 262 which species have the most records within the database⁷⁸⁻⁸⁰.

a Taxonomic representation



b Wider representation across the tree of life



263

264 **Figure 5. Taxonomic representation of biodiversity data is highest for birds and mammals**
265 **and lowest for arthropods.** The data available across biodiversity databases do not reflect the
266 taxonomic diversity of the tree of life and millions of species are not represented by even a single
267 record (b). Percentages in a show how many of the known species in each taxon are represented
268 by at least one record in the Living Planet, BioTIME and PREDICTS databases. Panel b shows
269 how monitored species fit within the larger tree of life and is based on catalogued and predicted
270 species in ⁸¹. The “Monitored” category combines the species represented in the Living Planet,
271 BioTIME and PREDICTS databases and the percentages show how many of the predicted
272 species feature at least once in biodiversity databases. The numbers of known species per taxa
273 were extracted from the 2019 edition of the Catalogue of Life (<http://www.catalogueoflife.org>).
274 The values for the birds and mammals in the Living Planet and BioTIME database include both
275 marine and terrestrial species. Note that the BioTIME database additionally include records for
276 marine invertebrates, benthos, marine plants, freshwater plants, freshwater invertebrates and
277 freshwater fish.

278

279 **Recommendations for capturing the spectrum and distribution of global change across**
280 **space, time and the tree of life**

281 Understanding ongoing and future biodiversity change can be improved by quantitatively
282 accounting for the representation of biodiversity data across global change space, over the
283 temporal trajectory of drivers, across geographic regions and across the tree of life. Together,
284 our four recommendations provide guidance on using existing observational data, determining
285 where to locate future ecological monitoring and designing experimental studies of novel global
286 change space without modern day analogues.

287

288 **Recommendation 1: Test the global change representation of databases and syntheses**

289 Extending our thinking beyond just geographic, temporal and taxonomic bias to include global
290 change variation can contextualize research findings from biodiversity data. The different relative
291 positions of the current forms of global biodiversity databases within global change space might
292 explain some of the differences in research findings. For example, predominantly negative
293 impacts of intensifying land-use change have been found using PREDICTS¹⁶, both negative and
294 positive influences of forest loss based on Living Planet and BioTIME¹³ and stronger impacts of
295 temperature change on richness, composition and abundance trends in BioTIME¹⁴. In this study,
296 we present a framework to test data representation across different global change drivers over
297 space and time that can be applied to other datasets. We recommend that future syntheses
298 explicitly include tests of the representation of their data for the global change drivers being
299 tested in addition to highlighting other data gap^{26,33,38,65,71-74}.

300

301 **Recommendation 2: Account for data representation across multiple axes in existing**
302 **syntheses of observational data**

303 Beyond testing for global change representation, studies should ideally account for the
304 representation of their data for the global change driver(s) of interest. A variety of approaches
305 could be used, including the following: 1) Randomized subsampling can help balance uneven
306 data where certain types of global change are overrepresented while others are
307 underrepresented³⁷, however, this has the disadvantage of discarding potentially valuable data.
308 2) Statistical weightings have been used to adjust the representativeness of the data sample
309 e.g., by up-weighting under-represented regions or taxa (e.g., as employed by the Living Planet
310 Index⁸² and often with citizen science data^{31,73}) but this approach can over emphasize the effect
311 of very small portions of the overall data⁸³ and potentially inflate errors associated with those
312 data^{36,60,83,84}. 3) Bias can be explicitly modelled using fixed effects for continuous variables of
313 driver intensity and random effects to represent geographic, temporal and taxonomic structure

314 (e.g., as in ⁸⁵), but care must be taken to ensure all uncertainties are propagated through to the
315 global mean estimate⁸⁶⁻⁸⁹. 4) Baselines, time since disturbance and changing intensity of impact
316 of global change drivers can be explicitly incorporated into analyses of time series data^{13,43}.
317 Analyses that explicitly incorporate global change representation will provide more accurate
318 attribution of biodiversity change to global change drivers.

319

320 **Recommendation 3: Prioritize new data collection for underrepresented parts of the global**
321 **change spectrum**

322 A lot of the focus in the literature is on filling geographic^{24,26,32,34}, temporal^{24,26,36,37}, and
323 taxonomic^{33,37,38} biodiversity data gaps, but this focus should be shifted towards prioritizing
324 regions that undersample global change. For example, we are currently lacking biodiversity data
325 from places with high magnitudes of climate change including Arctic and boreal forest regions,
326 as well as tropical regions that are currently entering non-analog climate space⁹⁰. These data are
327 important not just for understanding current effects of climate change, but also as sentinels of
328 future change around the world⁹⁰⁻⁹². Another underrepresented part of the global change
329 spectrum is relatively intact sites with low human impact (Figures 1-2), which provide a necessary
330 comparator for testing the impacts of human use, pollution and other global change drivers.
331 Although we cannot achieve greater global change representation of historic and current data,
332 the monitoring programs of the future can prioritize global change representation, while also
333 filling geographic and taxonomic gaps.

334

335 **Recommendation 4: Design experiments to study novel global change space**

336 Global change space is not static and to make scenarios for future biodiversity trends, we need
337 to sample not only current variation in global change drivers, but also future combinations of
338 global change drivers⁹³. We suggest that using projections for climate change and human

339 impact, such as IPCC² and HYDE⁴⁸, we can compute future global change space and determine
340 novel environments without current-day analogues and where those novel environments will
341 most likely occur. Designing lab and field experiments that test novel combinations and
342 magnitudes of global change drivers can provide a preview of biodiversity responses to future
343 environmental conditions. Prioritizing biodiversity monitoring where novel environments will likely
344 develop will ensure that future biodiversity syntheses and impact assessments will represent
345 future as well as current global change.

346

347 **Conclusion and ways forward**

348 Predicting future biodiversity change and its consequences for ecosystem functions and
349 services to society is an urgent scientific challenge. Global biodiversity monitoring needs to
350 capture a representative sample of the world over both space and time, as well as the full
351 spectrum of global change drivers. In this study, we quantified four types of representativeness
352 - global change intensity over space, global change intensity over time, geography, and
353 taxonomy (Figures 1-5). Together, our findings demonstrate that global biodiversity datasets
354 capture a large proportion of the intensity of global change, but not uniformly. Over space,
355 existing data capture up to 78% of the spatial variance in global change drivers, but more so at
356 sea than on land (78% versus 31%). Over time, monitoring often starts after the peak intensity
357 in environmental change for drivers like primary forest loss¹³, but more closely coincides with the
358 period of rapid climate change (Figure 3). We identify four recommendations to test and account
359 for current and future global change representation: 1) test the global change representation of
360 databases and syntheses, 2) Account for data representation across multiple axes in existing
361 syntheses of observational data, 3) Prioritize new data collection for underrepresented parts of
362 the global change spectrum, and 4) Design experiments to study novel global change space.

363

364 The biodiversity synthesis literature must progress beyond merely discussing bias to instead
365 quantify and account for the global change representation of biodiversity data. By considering
366 all axes of the global change spectrum, we can strengthen the empirical evidence for the next
367 stage of IPBES global biodiversity assessments and the global biodiversity indicators for the
368 Post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework. With continued calls for more biodiversity data
369 (e.g.,^{4,94,95}), we especially advocate for future biodiversity monitoring to target not just geographic
370 and taxonomic gaps, but also improved representation of global change.

371

372 **Methods**

373 *Databases of ecological monitoring*

374 We combined three of the largest biodiversity databases - Living Planet (7,340 time series
375 spanning 1970-2014), BioTIME (44,532 time series spanning 1858-2017) and PREDICTS (468
376 studies spanning 1984-2013). The Living Planet database⁷ includes time series data of individual
377 species' abundance for vertebrate taxa for the terrestrial, marine and freshwater realms
378 (freshwater realm data were excluded for the purposes of this analysis because of lack of global
379 change driver data for freshwater environments). The BioTIME database⁸ is also a compilation
380 of time series but of ecological assemblages for vertebrate, invertebrate and plant taxa across
381 the marine and terrestrial realms. The PREDICTS database⁹ includes space-for-time comparison
382 studies testing the effects of land-use change on vertebrates, invertebrates and plants and thus
383 focuses on the terrestrial realm.

384

385 *Databases of global change*

386 We used the 16 marine and terrestrial global change driver layers compiled by Bowler et al. 2020³
387 (Extended Data Table S2). We selected these layers because they had been harmonized across
388 both realms and hence were most suitable for our global analysis. As in Bowler et al., these

389 layers were grouped into five focal drivers: human use (land-use for the terrestrial realm, and
390 exploitation for the marine realm), climate change, human population density, pollution and
391 invasion potential. The driver data were harmonized to a standard spatial grid with a resolution
392 of 100 km² and were aggregated over the time period between 1990 and 2010. With the
393 exception of forest loss and climate change, the driver data were not available on an annual time
394 step. Data limitations are particularly pronounced for the marine realm, as it is harder to monitor
395 global change at sea than over land. For details on the individual layers forming the global change
396 data, including their resolutions and temporal coverage, see Extended Data Table S2. We used
397 the Land Use Harmonisation (LUH) database of reconstructed historical land cover at a 0.25°
398 resolution⁴⁷ to extract primary forest cover estimates over a long historic period (from the year
399 800 to 2014). For the terrestrial realm, we obtained monthly surface air temperature at a spatial
400 resolution of 0.5° from the CRU TS v4.05 database⁵³ and for the marine realm, we extracted sea
401 surface temperature at a spatial resolution of 2° from the NOAA Extended Reconstructed SST
402 v5 database⁵⁴. For both surface air temperature and sea surface temperature, we aggregated
403 the monthly data into yearly averages for time periods matching the timing of biodiversity time
404 series as well as the period of same duration preceding the monitoring (e.g., for a time series
405 from 2000 to 2010, we extracted data from 1990 to 2000 and from 2000 to 2010).

406

407 *Mapping ecological monitoring in global change space*

408 We combined the geographical coordinates of all spatially-explicit monitoring sites in the Living
409 Planet, BioTIME and PREDICTS databases. For each sampling site, we extracted the intensity
410 of 16 global change layers as well as their cumulative magnitudes. The driver data matching the
411 sites in each database are available in an open-access repository (see Code and Data Availability
412 section). The estimates for the magnitudes of each driver were standardized between 0 and 1 to
413 make them comparable. We used a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to map global change

414 space within the two dominant orthogonal axes (similar to trait space⁴⁵), which explained 81%
415 of the variation, and visualized the sampled sites in this global change space. We extracted driver
416 intensity for one million simulated random locations spanning the globe to represent an unbiased
417 sample of the marine and terrestrial surface of the world. We used this random sample as a
418 comparison for quantifying the representation of global change variation in biodiversity data. To
419 calculate the percentage overlap between global change space and the area within it occupied
420 by the three databases, we used the package SIBER v.2.1.6.9⁹⁶ and 95% prediction ellipses.
421 The overlap was calculated using ellipses based on the climate change and human use variables,
422 since human population density, pollution and invasion pressure were positively correlated with
423 human use. We visualized marine and terrestrial global change space separately because of
424 known differences in the global change driver variables capturing human impact across realms
425 and suspected differences in the patterns of sampling effort³.

426

427 To statistically compare the intensity of global change drivers around the world and in locations
428 with biodiversity data, we used two Bayesian general linear models (one for the marine and one
429 for the terrestrial realm) with driver intensity as the response and an interaction term between
430 driver type and database as the predictor. Driver intensity values for each driver were
431 standardized between zero and one to make them comparable. Database represented a four-
432 level categorical variable (Random global sampling, Living Planet, BioTIME or PREDICTS
433 database; in the marine model the PREDICTS database was omitted since it only covers the
434 terrestrial realm). The 'Random global sampling' level was used as the reference so the
435 coefficients for the three databases represent differences from the random global sampling. We
436 fitted our model using the package brms v.2.15.0⁹⁷ and the default weakly informative priors. We
437 considered credible intervals around the effect size (posterior mean) that do not overlap zero to
438 indicate that global change on sites with existing biodiversity data differs from random sampling.

439 When effect sizes are negative this indicates that sites with existing biodiversity data
440 underestimate driver intensity and when effect sizes are positive this indicates that sites with
441 existing biodiversity data overestimate driver intensity.

442

443 *Quantifying mismatches between peak driver intensity and ecological monitoring*

444 To quantify how well biodiversity captured variation in global change over time, we focused on
445 changes in primary forest cover derived from the LUH database⁴⁷ and in temperature, derived
446 from the CRU TS v.4.05 database⁵³ for the terrestrial realm and from the NOAA Extended
447 Reconstructed SST v5 database⁵⁴ for the marine realm. We chose these focal drivers because
448 they explain large amounts of the variation in global change in the terrestrial realm³ and they
449 have long-enough temporal data to allow us to determine the trajectory of change and assess
450 its match with the timing of biodiversity data collection.

451

452 We visualized primary forest cover from the year 800 to 2014 for the location of each terrestrial
453 site in the Living Planet and BioTIME databases and indicated when the monitoring began at
454 each site. We were unable to complete a similar analysis for the marine realm because there are
455 no available temporal data for human use drivers like fishing of a sufficiently high temporal and
456 spatial resolution. We extracted monthly mean temperature data for the same locations and
457 summarized it as yearly averages. We then compared the slopes of temperature change during
458 the biodiversity monitoring with the slopes of temperature change in the period preceding the
459 monitoring (the two comparison periods were of equal length and always more than five years).
460 For the comparison, we used general linear models predicting temperature change as a function
461 of period, a two-level categorical variable with the levels of before and during monitoring.

462

463 *Determining geographic and ecoregion representation*

464 We mapped the location of sampling sites within the Living Planet, BioTIME and PREDICTS
465 databases. Ecoregion polygons were retrieved for the terrestrial⁹⁸ and marine⁹⁹ realms. We then
466 counted the number of ecoregions that were sampled by each database (sampling indicates at
467 least one record in a given ecoregion).

468

469 *Determining taxonomic representation*

470 To quantify taxonomic representation, we extracted the numbers of known species per taxa from
471 the 2019 edition of the Catalogue of Life (<http://www.catalogueoflife.org>) and then compared
472 them to the numbers of distinct species recorded in the Living Planet, BioTIME and PREDICTS
473 databases. We quantified taxonomic representation as percentages of species which have at
474 least one record in the respective databases.

475

476 **Data availability**

477 All data are publicly available. Population and biodiversity time-series data are freely available in
478 the Living Planet and BioTIME Databases (see references for details on data collection). The
479 Living Planet Database can be accessed on http://www.livingplanetindex.org/data_portal. The
480 BioTIME Database can be accessed on Zenodo (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1211105>) or
481 through the BioTIME website (<http://biotime.st-andrews.ac.uk/>). PREDICTS can be downloaded
482 from <https://www.predicts.org.uk/pages/outputs.html>. The database of biodiversity data
483 locations and associated global change driver magnitudes we compiled is available on GitHub
484 (<https://github.com/gndaskalova/GlobalChangeSpace>).

485

486 **Code availability**

487 The R code for data manipulation, analyses and data visualization is available on GitHub
488 (<https://github.com/gndaskalova/GlobalChangeSpace>).

489

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740

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742

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745 conceptualization, analyses, investigation and methodology. DB, IMS and MD reviewed the
746 manuscript drafts and all authors contributed to editing. IMS was the primary supervisor to GND,
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