

1 **Biodiversity research in India: a bibliometric overview**

2 Ajishnu Roy, Nandini Garai, and Kousik Pramanick*

3 Integrative Biology Research Unit (IBRU), Department of Life Sciences, Presidency University,
4 Kolkata 700073, India

5 Email: ajishnuroy1990@gmail.com (AR)

6 ORCID: 0000-0001-9494-3963 (AR)

7 Email: nandinigarai001@gmail.com (NG)

8 ORCID: 0000-0002-7312-1853 (NG)

9 Email: kousik.dbs@presiuniv.ac.in (KP)

10 ORCID: 0000-0003-1822-4646 (KP)

11 *Corresponding author

12 **Abstract:**

13 As one of the ‘megadiverse’ countries, biodiversity research in India is not only important,
14 specifically for India, but also for the world. To investigate the condition of biodiversity in the
15 Indian academic literature, bibliometric analysis was employed. The Web of Science Core
16 Collection provided data (2000–2023). Out of a preliminary set of 1090 publications, 223 were
17 finalised with a focus solely on the Indian context. The characteristics, clustering, networks, and
18 trends within the field—published works, publishers, authors, journals, institutions, funding
19 agencies, collaborations, and so on —were analysed and visualised using R and VOSviewer.
20 Additionally, co-authorship, co-citation, co-occurrence, bibliographic coupling, etc., pertaining to
21 Keyword Plus, authors, journals, organisations, etc., are the subject of the analysis. The three most
22 relevant sources were ‘*Current Science*’, ‘*Biodiversity and Conservation*’, and ‘*Indian Journal of*
23 *Animal Sciences*’. The best-performing affiliations were the Indian Council of Agricultural

24 Research (ICAR), Indian Institute of Science (IISc), Wildlife Institute of India (WII), and the
25 National Remote Sensing Centre (NRSC). A significant portion of the research was focused on
26 environmental science ecology (52.46%), Biodiversity Conservation (15.69%), Science
27 Technology (15.24%), and agriculture (7.17%). Based on this study's findings, we propose six
28 important policy recommendations. We anticipate that this study will provide policymakers with
29 important information on the research needs of emerging nations such as India, as well as
30 recommendations and insights.

31 **Keywords:** biodiversity; conservation; bibliometric; network analysis; India;

32 **Introduction:**

33 Biodiversity is the exquisite fabric of life on Earth. It is an astounding diversity of bacteria,
34 flora, and wildlife, as well as the complex ecosystems in which they live. Distinct genes found in
35 each species and their interactions are included in biodiversity. If genes are the blueprints for life,
36 then the variety in these blueprints enables species to adapt to and flourish in various situations.
37 Genetic diversity, or a rich array of genes within a species, is like having a diverse toolbox that
38 gives them the ability to adapt to change. The sheer quantity of species on Earth is known as the
39 species diversity. Each species has distinct functions. Every organism plays a role in the smooth
40 functioning of an ecosystem. The diversity of habitats on Earth is called ecosystem diversity. Each
41 ecosystem is a complex web of interactions between living organisms and their environment.

42 The rates of species extinction and habitat destruction are unparalleled. Even in well-
43 known habitats, new species continue to be discovered. Ecosystems are changing rapidly owing to
44 pollution, changing land use, and climate change. A complex network of interactions is necessary
45 for a healthy ecosystem, and even 'unseen' players play a crucial role. Research has enhanced our
46 understanding of biodiversity, enabling us to make knowledgeable decisions for a sustainable

47 future. It is an investment in the health of all life on Earth, including our own, and in the natural
48 world. It provides fresh water and air, controls temperature, and yields an abundance of natural
49 resources, food, and medicine. It is the foundation for a healthy planet, and its loss disrupts the
50 delicate balance that sustains us. Only 17 of the approximately 190 countries on Earth are
51 considered "megadiverse", meaning that they account for 70% of all biodiversity. One of these
52 megadiverse nations, India occupies 2.4% of the planet's surface area and is home to 7-8% of all
53 species, with 91,000 animal species and 45,500 plant species identified in its 10 biogeographic
54 regions. Of these, 33% of Indian plants, 45.8% of reptiles, 45.8% of amphibians, 4.5% of birds,
55 and 12.6% of mammals are endemic—found nowhere else in the world.

56 A bibliometric study provides guidance for future research areas, publication trends,
57 collaboration opportunities, and ultimately, more successful protection of India's remarkable
58 biodiversity. We can determine the facets of biodiversity that are given the greatest emphasis in
59 India. Are scientists concentrating on certain taxa such as endangered mammals or particular
60 ecosystems such as the Western Ghats? This can highlight gaps in knowledge, such as
61 understudied species or uncharted territories. Future research initiatives to close important
62 knowledge gaps in Indian biodiversity can be guided by these findings. How Indian biodiversity
63 researchers collaborate may be seen in this analysis. Do they mostly operate in India or have close
64 ties with other countries? This can help shape plans to improve collaboration and information
65 sharing. Prominent Indian scholars and organisations at the forefront of biodiversity research can
66 be identified. This enables policymakers to prioritise conservation efforts by recognising research
67 patterns. This information may be essential for creating successful conservation plans and
68 safeguarding the abundant biodiversity in India.

69 **Literature review:**

70 There are only a handful of bibliometric studies at the global, regional, and national levels.
71 Liu et al. (2011) have composed first comprehensive bibliometric analysis of biodiversity research
72 at global scale based on the Scientific Citation Index (SCI) bibliographic database, for a total of
73 75,860 publications. Liu et al. (2012) have completed a bibliometric study of 11,182 biodiversity
74 research publications (1997-2009) using the Web of Knowledge (WoK) database from China.
75 Arbeláez-Cortés (2013) have published a bibliometric analysis of 5,264 indexed publications
76 (1990-2011) on biodiversity in Colombia from the WoK database. Stork and Astrin (2014)
77 conducted a bibliometric analysis of 68,799 publications (1966–2014 Feb) from the Web of
78 Science (WoS) database. Kim et al. (2016) have mapped the marine biodiversity research trends
79 (2010-2015) in the China, Japan, and South Korea (i.e., the East Asian region) from WoS database.
80 Ali and Kumari (2018) have presented a scientometric analysis of world biodiversity literature
81 (1986-2016) with 1,54,654 publications from WoS database. Tydecks et al. (2018) analysed the
82 systematic spatial biases in biodiversity-related research based on a comprehensive bibliometric
83 analysis of 134,321 publications from the WoS database. Yan and Xue (2021) conducted a
84 bibliometric analysis of biodiversity research in China (2009-2018) with 17035 papers from both
85 WoS and China National Knowledge Internet (CNKI) databases. Abdullah et al. (2022) have
86 studied the global biodiversity management research domain with 949 articles (1992-2022) from
87 Scopus database. Blanco-Zaitag et al. (2022) conducted a bibliometric analysis on biodiversity
88 accounting and reporting using the Scopus and ProQuest database. Morales-Marroquín et al.
89 (2022) analysed biodiversity research in Central America (viz. Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras,
90 Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Panama), with 16,304 documents (1980-2020) from the WoS database.
91 Mabele et al. (2023) studied biodiversity conservation knowledge (1972-2021) in Tanzania from
92 1354 peer-reviewed publications using the WoS database. Simion et al. (2023) conducted a

93 bibliometric analysis of 'biodiversity' (2012-2022) using the ScienceDirect database. Tan et al.
94 (2023) analysed global research trends in biodiversity loss (1990-2021) using 6599 publications
95 from the WoS Core Collection database. Thus, bibliometric analyses have clearly shifted from
96 global to regional (for example, Central America) to country scale (for example, China, Tanzania).
97 However, a megadiverse country like India does not have any exclusively focused bibliometric
98 analysis on biodiversity (either conservation, management, trends, or loss), be it on a national or
99 subnational scale. As a result, writing such a study over the last few decades (2000s to present) is
100 both necessary and justified.

101 **Methodology:**

102 To maximise access to literature on biodiversity research in India, we searched the Web of
103 Science (WoS) Core Collection by “Topic-search (TS)”. To compose a comprehensive search
104 string, we used three components joined by ‘AND’. The first component included terms related to
105 the place of research (43 terms): India, Indian states, and union territories. The second component
106 was the level of analysis (40 terms), that is the national or subnational scale. The third component
107 included 12 terms related to biodiversity. The full search string is provided in the Supplementary
108 File. The search duration was from 1 January 2000 to 31 December 2023, i.e., 23 years. The
109 inclusion of these 23 years ensures the coverage of the UN's MDG and SDG. From the initial
110 search, we obtained a preliminary set of 1090 publications. We cross-checked all of these via the
111 Title and Abstract, ensuring their focus on biodiversity research in the Indian context. After
112 refinement, 223 studies were obtained. We used the ‘bibliometrix’ package (Aria and Cuccurullo,
113 2017) in R (v.4.3.2) and VOSviewer software (v.1.6.20) (Van Eck and Waltman, 2010) for all
114 bibliometric analyses performed in this study.

115 **Results:**

116 **Overview:**

117 Biodiversity research is a moderately growing field (with an annual growth rate of 4.89%)
118 (Fig 1a). The average citation rate of 18.46/document indicates reasonable visibility and impact of
119 the research. A high number of authors (1086) relative to the number of documents (223), suggests
120 a collaborative research culture. The low number of single-authored documents (17) and the high
121 number of co-authors (5.4/document) confirmed this collaborative trend. Over one-third (34.98%)
122 of the collaborations involved international co-authors, highlighting the increasing number of
123 international research partnerships.

124 Articles were the dominant document type (196, >93%), showing research findings in peer-
125 reviewed journals (Fig 1b). A relatively small number of review articles (13, 6%) suggested a
126 potential gap in synthesising existing knowledge within Indian biodiversity research. The minimal
127 number of book chapters (3%) and conference proceedings (3%) indicates less focus on
128 disseminating research through these channels.

129 The top three publishers, '*Springer-Nature*', '*Elsevier*', and '*Wiley*', account for a
130 significant portion (>50%) of the publications (Fig 1c). This suggests a preference for publishing
131 in established, well-regarded international commercial journals with a wider readership. There is
132 a notable presence of Indian publishers such as the Indian Academy of Sciences (IAS) and Indian
133 Council Agricultural Research (ICAR). This indicates that Indian researchers publish in domestic
134 journals along with international ones. The inclusion of Public Library Science (PLOS)
135 publications suggests that some researchers opted for the open-access (OA) model, in which
136 research is freely available online.

137 Indian government agencies such as the UGC, DST, and CSIR are the most prominent
138 funders (Fig 1d), highlighting significant governmental support for this research field. The

139 presence of agencies, such as DBT and ICAR, suggests targeted funding for specific areas.
140 Funding from agencies such as the NSF of the USA, the Royal Society (UK), and the Austrian
141 Science Fund (FWF) indicates international collaboration and external financial support for Indian
142 biodiversity research. A few publications acknowledge funding from private foundations (e.g.
143 Ford Foundation and Rufford Foundation) and NGOs (e.g. WCS). This indicates an emerging
144 trend in philanthropic contributions to biodiversity research in India.

145 Over a third (33.6%) of the publications were Open Access (OA) (Fig 1e), indicating a
146 growing trend towards making research findings publicly available. The majority of OA
147 publications (60%, combining Gold and Gold-Hybrid) suggest that researchers are increasingly
148 opting to publish in journals that provide immediate open access.

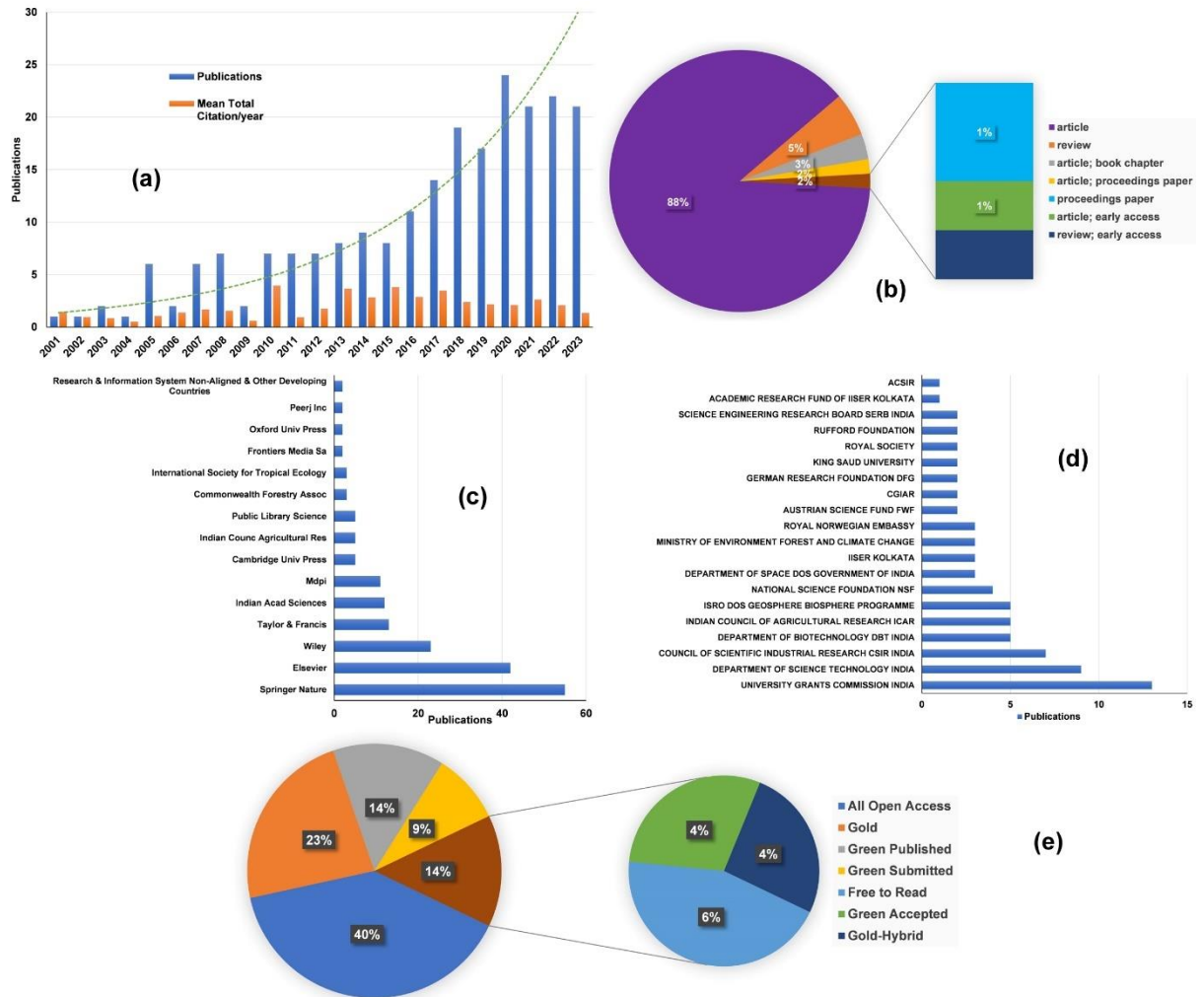


Figure 1. Characteristics of Biodiversity research on India. (a) year-wise articles publications, (b) types of published documents, (c) most relevant publishers, (d) most relevant funding agencies, and (e) categories of open access publishing.

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152 **Analysis of authors:**

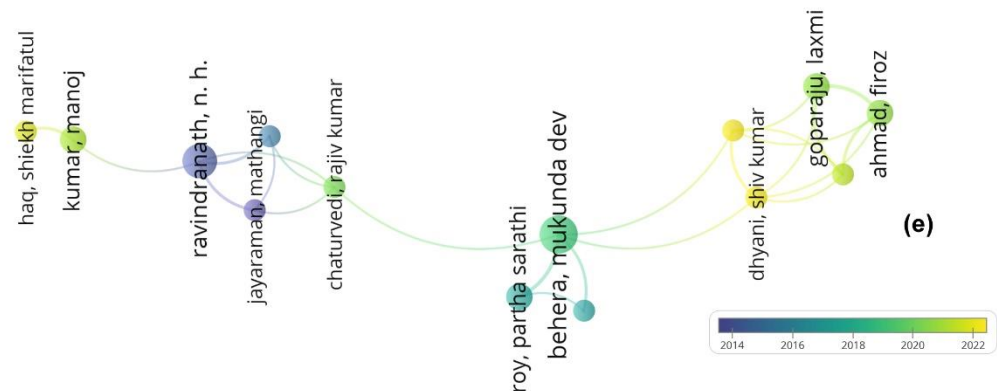
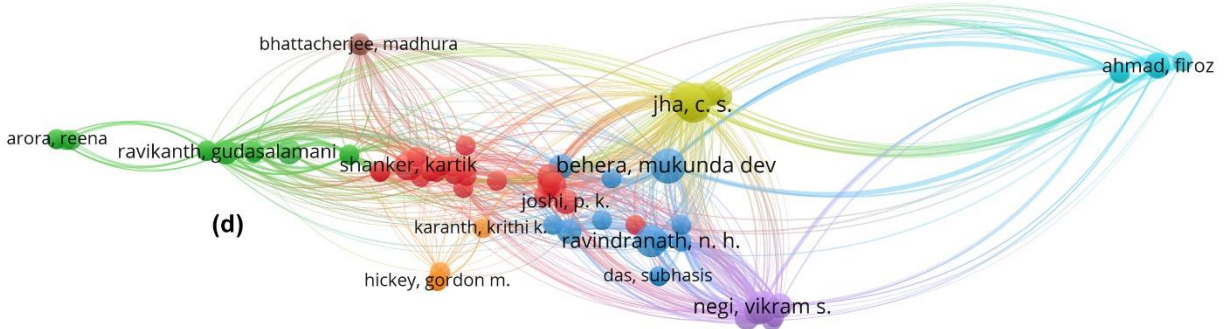
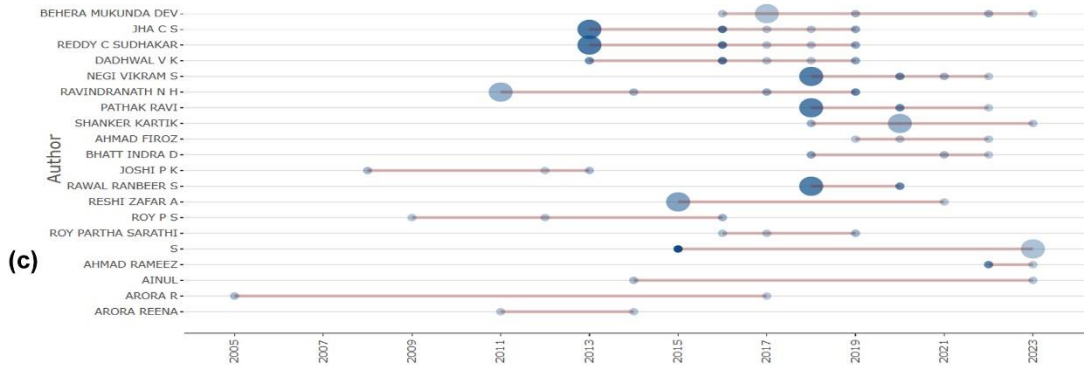
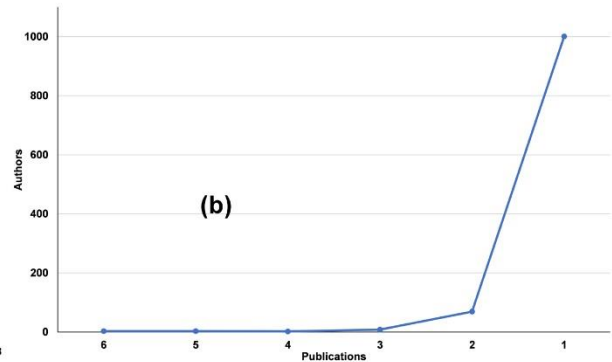
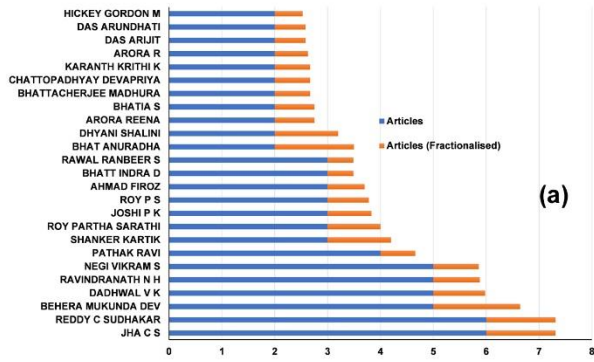
153 A small number of authors (e.g. Roy PS, Behera MD, Reddy CS) have published a
154 significant number of papers, indicating their prominent contribution to the field in India. The long
155 tail of authors with only 1-2 publications each, suggests a large pool of researchers actively

156 contributing to biodiversity research. This is a positive sign for the vibrant research community. A
157 small number of authors (e.g. Jha, Behera, Dadhwal) have published a substantial number (5-6) of
158 articles (Fig 2a). This finding suggests a concentration of research expertise among certain
159 individuals. From the analysis of author productivity (via Lotka's law), a significant proportion
160 (92.2%) of publications had a single author (Fig 2b). The proportion of authors with 2-5
161 publications was significantly lower, indicating a lesser degree of collaborative research compared
162 with single-authored work. Some authors (e.g. Bhat, Dhyani Shalini, and Shankar) had higher
163 fractionalisation values, suggesting a tendency towards collaborative research. Authors such as
164 Dadhwal, Jha, Reddy, and Ravindranath have received a high number of local citations (LC),
165 suggesting their significant contributions to biodiversity research recognised within India. The
166 authors reported varying publication rates across the years (Fig 2c). For instance, Jha and Reddy
167 have consistently published at least 1 article/year, while others like Arora R and Bhatt Indra D
168 show bursts of publications in certain years. Some authors (e.g. Behera, Negi, Pathak, and Rawal)
169 have experienced years with particularly high citation counts (e.g. 68 citations for Negi in 2018).

170 From the bibliographic coupling analysis of authors, a large proportion of the authors have
171 h-indexes of 2-3, indicating that they are in the early stages of their careers (Fig 2d). A significant
172 number of authors are women, which is a positive trend given that women have historically been
173 under-represented in the field of science. This increase in representation suggests that biodiversity
174 research is becoming increasingly inclusive and welcome. Many authors are based on institutions
175 in India, suggesting a strong focus on local biodiversity issues. This regional focus is important to
176 address the specific conservation challenges faced by India's diverse ecosystems. Several authors
177 have co-authored publications with international researchers, suggesting that international

178 collaboration is becoming increasingly important in biodiversity research. This collaboration is
179 essential for sharing knowledge and resources, and addressing global conservation challenges.

180 From the co-authorship analysis of authors (Fig 2e), a small number of authors were highly
181 collaborative. This trend suggests that a select group of researchers in India plays a pivotal role in
182 shaping the direction of biodiversity research. Collaboration among authors from different
183 institutions is prevalent. The prevalence of interinstitutional collaboration highlights the
184 interdisciplinary nature of biodiversity research. International collaboration in biodiversity
185 research is also increasing. Increasing international collaboration reflects the global nature of
186 biodiversity.



187

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Figure 2. Characteristics of Biodiversity research on India. (a) most relevant authors, (b) author productivity via Lotka's law, (c) Authors' production with time, (d) bibliographic coupling of authors and (e) co-authorship of authors.

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190 ***Analysis of affiliations:***

191 Leading institutions include the ICAR and its affiliated institutes, IISc, and DOS
192 organisations, such as ISRO (Fig 3a). This finding highlights the prominent role of government-
193 funded institutions in biodiversity research in India. The prominence of NRSC, WII, and FRI
194 indicates a strong focus on utilising remote sensing technologies and studying forest ecosystems.
195 The presence of affiliations such as ETH Zurich (Switzerland), CIRAD, James Cook University
196 (Australia), and University of Oxford (UK) suggests active international collaboration among
197 Indian researchers. The inclusion of private institutions, such as Amity University and ATREE,
198 points to the growing participation of non-governmental entities in biodiversity research.
199 Affiliations, such as TERI University and CSIR, highlight the integration of science and
200 technology disciplines in studying biodiversity. The Center for Ecological Sciences is the single
201 most prominent department, highlighting the central role of ecological studies in Indian
202 biodiversity research. The presence of departments like 'Centre for Sustainable Technologies' and
203 IIT Kharagpur's 'Centre for Oceans Rivers Atmosphere and Land Sciences' indicates an
204 integration of various disciplines to study biodiversity. IIT Kharagpur's multiple departments (e.g.
205 The Faculty of Engineering and Architecture and the School of Water Resources') suggest the
206 application of engineering and remote sensing technologies in biodiversity research. Departments
207 such as the University of Oxford's 'Department of Zoology' and the Kerala University of Fisheries

208 and Ocean Studies Department of Fisheries Resource Management have focused on specific
209 ecosystems (marine and fisheries).

210 A significant portion of the research comes from Indian institutions, including prominent
211 names, such as IISc, WII, NRSC, FRI, and various universities. Institutions such as the NRSC and
212 the IIRS hold prominent positions. The presence of international universities, such as Colorado
213 State University, the University of Göttingen, James Cook University, and others, indicates a rise
214 in collaborative research efforts between Indian and international institutions. Institutions such as
215 the GB Pant National Institute of Himalayan Environment and Sustainability and the French
216 Institute of Pondicherry suggest a focus on specific ecosystems, such as the Himalayas and coastal
217 areas. Newer institutions, such as TERI University, Amity University, and Azim Premji
218 University, which have contributed to research, signify a growing interest in biodiversity
219 conservation among a wider range of academic institutions.

220 From the bibliographic coupling analysis of institutions (Fig 3b), many Indian institutions
221 appeared together, suggesting a robust network of collaborations within the country. Examples
222 include the Wildlife Institute of India, Indian Institute of Science (IISc), and TERI University with
223 the University of Agricultural Sciences.

224 We see a steady increase in the number of articles published by some affiliations such as
225 TERI University, Amity University, and BHU. This indicates a growing interest in biodiversity
226 research among the new institutions. Prominent institutions such as the IISc, WII, and NRSC
227 continue to publish a significant number of articles. Some institutions, such as Pondicherry
228 University and the French Institute of Pondicherry, show a period of initial activity followed by a
229 plateau. This could suggest a shift in research focus or resource allocation.

230 **Analysis of publications:**

231 This is dominated by publications in international peer-reviewed journals like
232 *Conservation Biology*, *Global Change Biology*, *Remote Sensing*, and *Ecological Engineering*. The
233 topics covered in these publications are wide-ranging, and include invasive species (Pyšek et al.
234 2017, Kannan et al. 2013), land use changes (DeFries et al. 2010), and ecosystem services (Roy et
235 al. 2015; Bustamante et al. 2014), ecological modelling (Hardy et al., 2012), and conservation
236 planning (Reddy et al. 2016, 2013). There is substantial variation in citation counts, with the
237 highest being 304 (Pyšek et al. 2017) and several publications with <30 citations. This suggests a
238 mix of highly influential and less cited works. Notably, several publications from the last five years
239 (2018-2023) have had high citation rates (for example, Das et al. 2020; Srivastava et al. 2023).
240 This indicates that the quality and impact of Indian biodiversity research is increasing.

241 A significant proportion (60%) of publications did not receive any citations within the
242 Indian research community (Fig 3c). Even highly cited publications globally (e.g. Reddy et al.
243 2016; Kumar et al. 2019) have relatively low local citations. This could indicate that Indian
244 researchers prioritise publishing in international journals for wider recognition. There are a few
245 exceptions, like Sharma et al. (2017) and Yadav et al. (2011), with a high local citations/global
246 citation (LC/GC) ratio. This suggests that these publications had a significant influence within
247 India. Publications from 2017 onwards seem to have a higher LC/GC ratio than earlier
248 publications. This might be due to the increasing focus on research relevant to the Indian context.
249 Several publications on LC are from Indian journals (e.g. *Current Science* and *Tropical Ecology*).
250 This highlights the potential role of national journals in the dissemination of biodiversity research
251 in India.

252 From the co-citation analysis of cited publications (Fig 3d), several publications appeared
253 frequently, including Myers (2000) on biodiversity hotspots, Hijmans et al. (2005) on climate data,

254 and Jha et al. (2000) on biodiversity in India. These highly cited works likely form the cornerstone
255 of biodiversity research in the country. The use of references to population genetics (Peakall et al.
256 2006, Cornuet et al. 1996), and conservation biology (Piry et al. 1999, IUCN Red List Threat
257 classification) highlights their significance in understanding and managing biodiversity threats.
258 Citations to Elith and Le Lay (2006) on MaxEnt for species distribution modelling and Xu et al.
259 (2009) on climate change impacts suggest a focus on using these techniques for biodiversity
260 conservation planning. Similarly, references to Joshi et al. (2006) on remote sensing applications
261 in ecology indicate the integration of technology into biodiversity research. Co-citations of seminal
262 works such as Whittaker's beta diversity (Champion 1968) demonstrate the foundation of modern
263 Indian biodiversity research. More recent publications on ecosystem services valuation (Costanza
264 et al. 1997) and human population dynamics (Bongaarts 2019) highlight the broadening scope of
265 Indian biodiversity research, encompassing the socioeconomic aspects of conservation.

266 **Analysis of citations:**

267 The initial years of early fluctuations (2001-2010) show fluctuations in average citations,
268 with some publications receiving high citations (e.g. 2005, 2010) and others receiving fewer
269 citations. A gradual rise (2011-2018) in the average citation/article was observed. There seems to
270 be a recent decline (2019-2023) in the average citations.

271 'Forestry' is the most prominent topic, with nearly half (47%) of the citations belonging to
272 this category (Fig 3e). This highlights the significance of forest ecosystems and their management
273 in India. 'Marine Biology' and 'Phytochemicals' (plant chemicals) are well-represented. Topics
274 such as 'Phylogenetics & Genomics', 'Climate Change', and 'Remote Sensing suggest an increased
275 focus on utilising advanced techniques and understanding the impact of climate change on
276 biodiversity. The presence of 'Crop Science', 'Soil Science', and 'Nutrition & Dietetics'

277 showcases the application of biodiversity research in agriculture and food security. Topics like
278 'Entomology', 'Zoology & Animal Ecology', and 'Oceanography' have a lower presence,
279 suggesting a potential gap in research focus on certain faunal groups and marine environments.
280 The inclusion of seemingly unrelated topics like 'Political Science' and 'Social Psychology' might
281 indicate research on the social dimensions of biodiversity conservation or the human-wildlife
282 interface. Prominence of 'Deforestation' as a topic highlights a major threat to Indian biodiversity.
283 'Species Conservation' and 'Ecosystem Services' indicate research efforts towards mitigating
284 these threats. The dominance of 'Maxent' (species distribution modelling software) and 'NDVI'
285 suggests reliance on ecological modelling and remote sensing for biodiversity assessments. The
286 presence of 'Microsatellites' and 'Mitochondrial Genome' reveals the application of genetic
287 techniques in biodiversity research, potentially for population genetics, species identification, and
288 conservation forensics. 'Seed Dispersal', 'Ethnobotany', and 'Terpenes' (plant chemicals)
289 showcase research on plant interactions with animals and traditional knowledge of plant uses.
290 Topics like 'Seagrass', 'Polychaeta' (worms), 'Formicidae' (ants), 'Lizards', and 'Rhodophyta'
291 (red algae) indicate research on specific taxa or ecosystems. The inclusion of 'climate change
292 adaptation', 'food insecurity', 'water governance', and 'urban agriculture' reflects the exploration
293 of links between biodiversity and broader environmental and social challenges. The presence of
294 seemingly unrelated topics like 'Influenza' and 'Malaria' might indicate research on zoonotic
295 diseases or the impact of biodiversity loss on disease emergence.

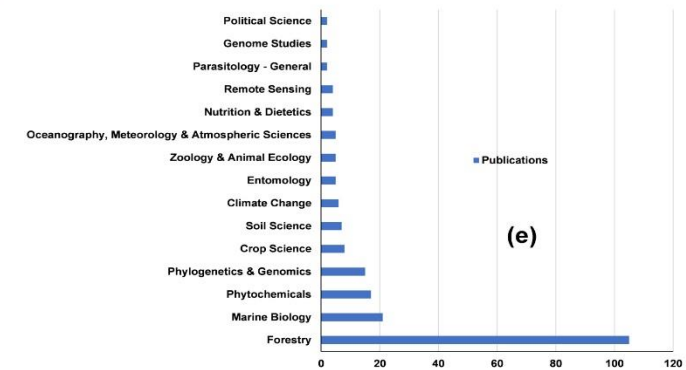
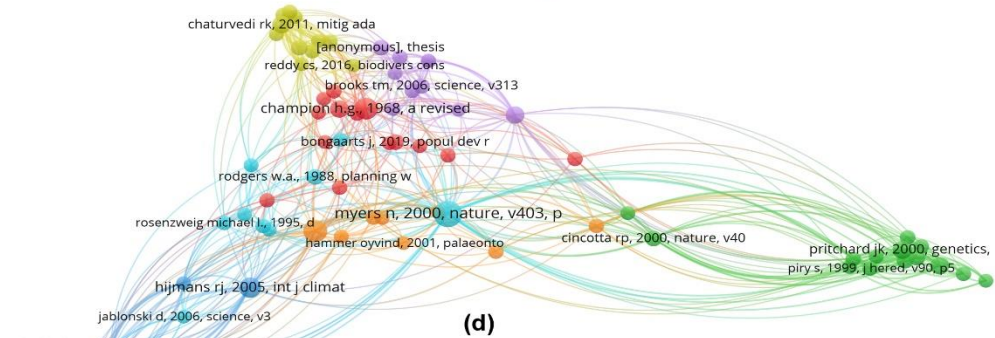
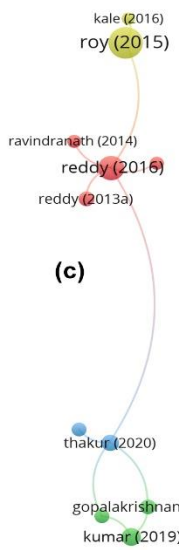
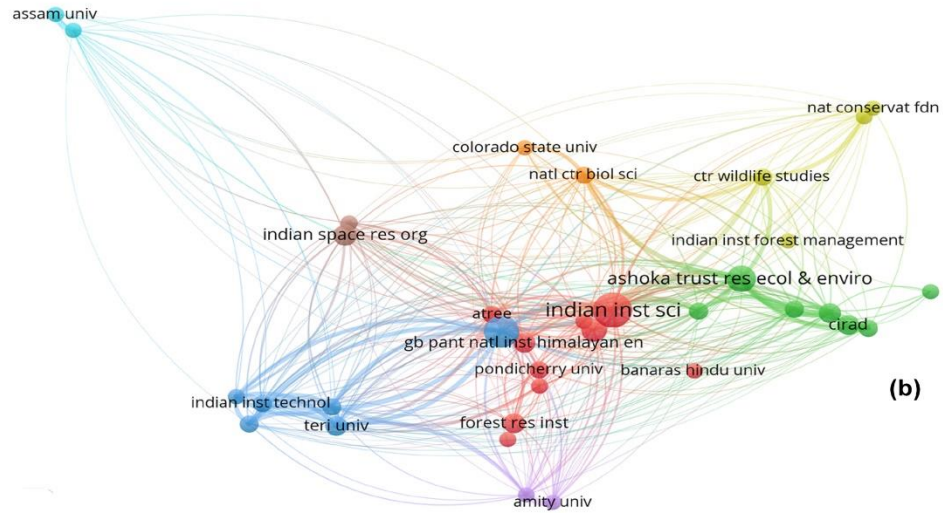
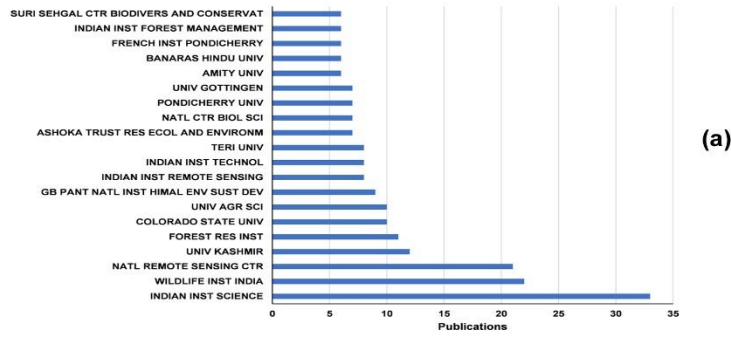


Figure 3. Characteristics of Biodiversity research on India. (a) most relevant affiliations, (b) bibliographic coupling of institutions, (c) most cited publications, (d) co-citation of cited publications, and (e) most cited topics.

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299 Six clusters were identified in the authors' co-citation network (Fig 4a). Cluster 1 includes
300 authors like Nei, Peakall, Singh S, and Arora. These authors are cited together, suggesting a
301 potential focus on population genetics or evolutionary biology that is relevant to biodiversity.
302 Cluster 2 (dominant) is the largest cluster, containing prominent researchers like Reddy, Roy,
303 Singh RK, Ravindranath, Gadgil, and others. Keywords associated with some authors in this
304 cluster (e.g. Reddy, ecosystem services; Roy, conservation biology) suggest a focus on
305 conservation biology, ecosystem services valuation, and sustainable development in the Indian
306 context. The presence of authors like Gadgil, championing community-based conservation,
307 highlights a potential sub-theme within this cluster. Cluster 3 included Myers, Steffan-Dewenter,
308 Karanth, Daniels, and Ostrom. The presence of Ostrom (known for work on common-pool
309 resources) and Daniels (wildlife conservation) suggests a focus on human-wildlife interactions,
310 governance, and community-based conservation approaches. Cluster 4 includes Maikhuri, Negi,
311 Chaturvedi, Pandey, Sharma, and Kumar. The focus on researchers from the Indian Himalayas
312 (e.g. Maikhuri, Negi) suggested a potential link to biodiversity research in this region. Cluster 5
313 included Webb, Ramesh, Hijmans, Kraft, Legendre, Davidar, Pascal, Colwell, and Phillips. The
314 presence of researchers like Hijmans (spatial analysis) and Colwell (SDM), suggests a focus on
315 applying spatial analysis tools and ecological niche modelling in biodiversity research. Cluster 6
316 contained Dhar (medicinal plants), Kala (ethnobotany), and Samant.

317 Seven clusters were identified in the co-citation network of publications (Fig 4b). Cluster
318 1 includes publications by Champion (1968), a pioneer in Indian forestry, and recent works (2006-
319 2015) by Ravindranath, Chaturvedi, Sharma, Shrestha, and Upgupta. The presence of Champion
320 suggests a link to historical forestry research, whereas keywords associated with some recent
321 works (for example, Ravindranath, ecosystem services) indicate a focus on sustainable forest
322 management and its ecological benefits. Cluster 2 features publications by Myers (2000), a
323 prominent conservation biologist, along with studies on gap analysis, species distribution
324 modelling (Oksanen, 2015), and community ecology (Menon, 1997). The focus on Myers and
325 SDM suggests a theme for biodiversity conservation planning and identifying areas of importance.
326 Cluster 3 includes publications by Jha (2000), Geist (2002), and Steffan-Dewenter (2002). The
327 presence of Jha (known for work on human-wildlife interactions) and Geist (land-use change)
328 suggests a potential theme around the impact of land-use change on biodiversity and human-
329 wildlife interactions. Cluster 4 features publications by Gaston (2000) on biodiversity patterns and
330 Rosenzweig (1995) on climate change effects. Considering the globally cited studies on
331 biodiversity patterns and climate change, this cluster likely represents research on how these
332 factors influence biodiversity in India. Cluster 5 contained two publications by Roy (2012, 2015).
333 Cluster 6 featured publications on conservation planning (Emerson, 2008), spatial analysis
334 (Hijmans, 2005), and population genetics (Nei, 1973; Peakall, 2006). This cluster likely represents
335 the application of spatial analysis tools, genetic markers, and ecological niche modelling for
336 biodiversity conservation planning in India. Cluster 7 features publications on population genetics
337 (Nei, 1973; Peakall, 2006), alongside other studies on genetic diversity analysis techniques. This
338 cluster highlights the use of population genetics tools to understand genetic diversity within Indian
339 species and populations.

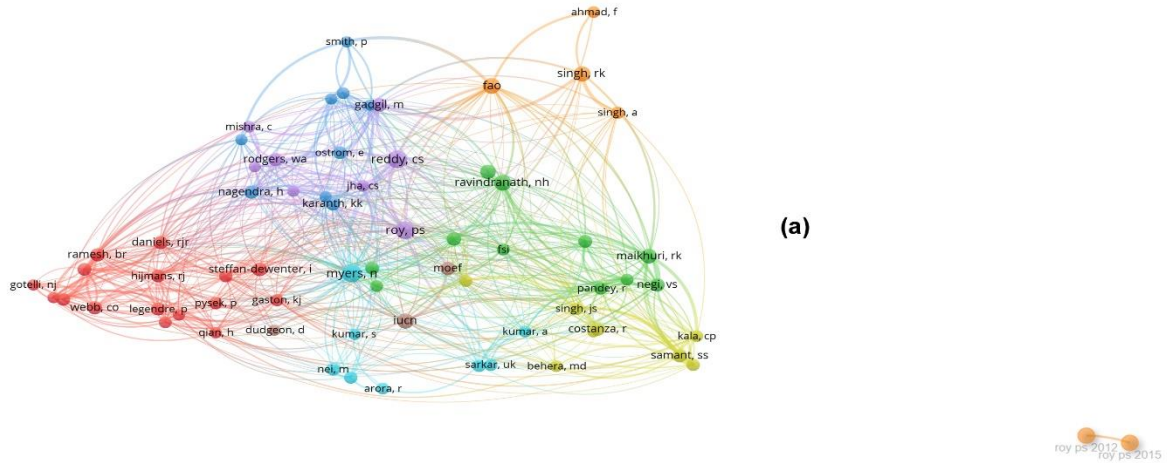
340 Four clusters were identified in the co-citation network of journals (Fig 4c). Cluster 1
341 (dominant) features high-impact general science journals like *Science*, *Nature*, *PNAS*, and *PLOS*
342 *One* alongside prominent biodiversity journals like *Biological Conservation* and *Conservation*
343 *Biology*. Cluster 2 (Ecology and Biogeography) includes established ecology journals like
344 *Ecology*, *Journal of Biogeography*, *Ecology Letters*, and *Global Ecology and Biogeography*. This
345 cluster highlights the centrality of the ecological and biogeographical themes in Indian biodiversity
346 research. Cluster 3 (Environmental Science and applications) features journals like *Forest Ecology*
347 *and Management*, *Ecological Indicators*, *Global Change Biology*, and *Remote Sensing of*
348 *Environment*. This cluster highlights the application of ecological principles and remote-sensing
349 tools for biodiversity research in India. Cluster 4 (specialized journals) includes a diverse range of
350 specialized journals like *Molecular Ecology*, *Genetics*, *Oecologia*, *Freshwater Biology*, and
351 *Biotropica*. The presence of these journals indicates research on specific aspects of biodiversity,
352 such as population genetics, conservation genetics, and the ecology of specific ecosystems (e.g.
353 freshwater systems and tropics).

354 **Analysis of research areas:**

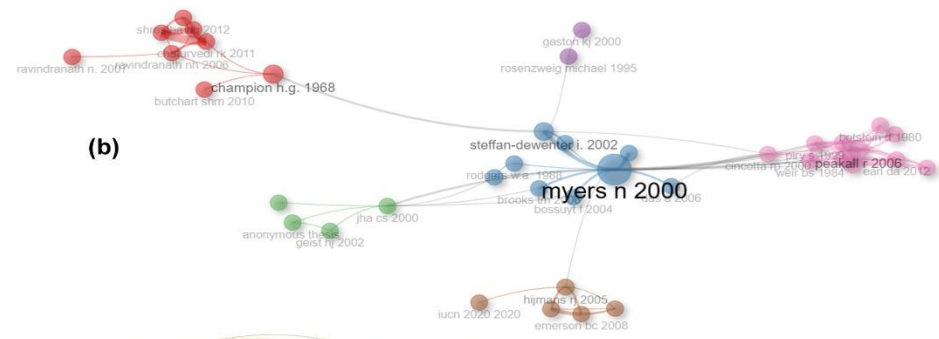
355 From the analysis of research areas, ‘Environmental Sciences Ecology’ was the clear
356 leader, accounting for over half (52%) of the publications (Fig 4d). ‘Biodiversity Conservation’
357 itself forms a significant portion (16%) of the research, highlighting India's recognition of the
358 importance of preserving its rich biodiversity. The presence of ‘Science Technology Other Topics’
359 (15%) suggests research that explores biodiversity through various scientific lenses beyond pure
360 ecology or conservation. ‘Agriculture, Forestry, and Plant Sciences’ all have a notable presence.
361 While ‘Marine and Freshwater Biology’ are present, the numbers are lower than those in terrestrial
362 ecosystems. This may indicate a gap in the research on India's aquatic biodiversity. The inclusion

363 of fields like 'Remote Sensing', 'Genetics', and 'Water Resources' suggests researchers are
364 employing interdisciplinary approaches to study biodiversity.

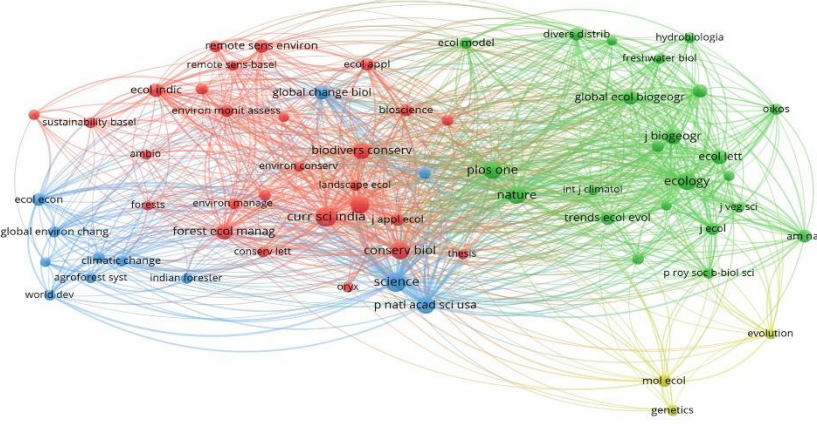
365 Among the WoS categories, the high presence of categories such as 'Environmental
366 Sciences', 'Ecology', and 'Biodiversity Conservation reflects a strong foundation in the core
367 disciplines relevant to biodiversity research (Fig 4e). Categories like 'Multidisciplinary Sciences',
368 'Green Sustainable Science Technology', and 'Environmental Studies' highlight the integration of
369 biodiversity research with other fields. The presence of categories like 'Marine Freshwater
370 Biology', 'Forestry', 'Plant Sciences', and 'Zoology' suggests research focus on specific
371 ecosystems (forests, aquatic systems) and taxonomic groups (plants, animals). The inclusion of
372 categories like 'Remote Sensing', 'Water Resources', and 'Agriculture Dairy Animal Science'
373 indicates the application of these disciplines in understanding and managing biodiversity. Fewer
374 categories from Social Sciences (e.g. 'Law', 'Sociology') suggest a potential gap in incorporating
375 social dimensions of biodiversity conservation within research.



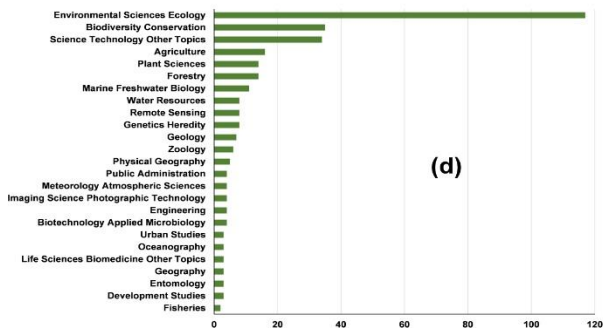
(a)



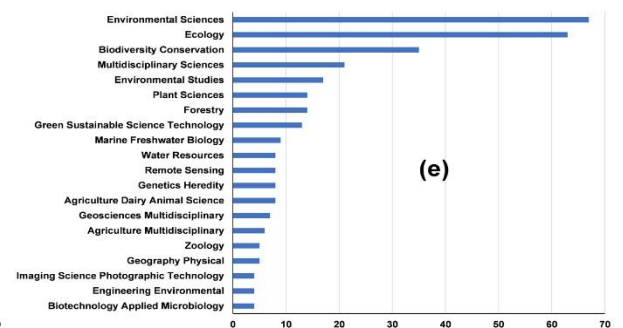
(b)



(c)



(d)



(e)

Figure 4. Characteristics of Biodiversity research on India. (a) co-citation of authors, (b) co-citation of publications, (c) co-citation of journals, (d) most relevant research areas, and (e) WoS categories.

378

379 **Analysis of Journals:**

380 Publications are spread across a wide range of journals, indicating a decentralised
381 publishing landscape. This can be both a strength (providing diverse outlets for research) and a
382 weakness (scattering research findings across numerous sources). Several well-respected
383 international journals in ecology, conservation biology, and environmental science are featured
384 (e.g. *Conservation Biology*, *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, *Journal of Applied Ecology*) (Fig
385 5a). A few prominent Indian journals like *Current Science* and *the Journal of the Indian Society*
386 *of Remote Sensing*, appear frequently. This suggests a need to focus on disseminating research
387 within the Indian scientific community. Some journals (e.g. *Biodiversity for Sustainable*
388 *Development*, *Tropical Ecology*) hint at potential thematic strengths in Indian biodiversity
389 research.

390 Most locally cited journals are dominated by prestigious international journals in ecology,
391 conservation biology, environmental science, and broader scientific fields (e.g. *Science*, *Nature*,
392 *PNAS*, *Global Change Biology*, *Ecology Letters*) (Fig 5b). Several prominent biodiversity journals
393 like *Biological Conservation*, *Biodiversity and Conservation*, and *Oryx*, are well-represented.
394 While *Current Science* appears to have a high number of citations, other local journals are absent.

395 Three zones were identified according to Bradford's law (Fig 5c). Zone 1 (core) consists
396 of 11 journals that contribute nearly half (48%) of the publications in this dataset. Journals like
397 *Current Science*, *Biodiversity and Conservation*, and *Ecological Indicators* suggest a focus on

398 broad ecological themes and biodiversity specific topics. Only one Indian journal (*Current*
399 *Science*) appeared in Zone 1. Zone 2 (essential readership) includes 39 journals, accounting for
400 roughly a third (33%) of the publications. These journals are likely important for updating current
401 research and covering a broader range of ecological and biodiversity-related themes. Journals like
402 *Conservation Biology*, *Global Change Biology*, and *the Journal of Ecology* indicate a strong
403 international influence in the field. Zone 3 (scattered literature) encompasses the remaining 97
404 journals, contributing to the remaining 19% of publications.

405 Regarding the local impacts of journals, a significant number of journals (>30) had h-index,
406 g-index, and m-index values of 1-2. This suggests that a large proportion of these publications
407 might have limited the impact of LC. Many journals with high citation counts (e.g. *Current*
408 *Science*, *Biodiversity and Conservation*) started publishing relatively recently (around 2005).
409 Journals like *Ecological Indicators* and *Land Use Policy* hint at a potential focus on applied
410 ecology and human-environment interactions within the local research community.

411 There has been a significant increase in the number of publications since 2010 across most
412 journals. This suggests a growing emphasis on research and scholarly communication in the field.
413 *Current Science* maintains a steadier annual output, while journals like *PLOS One* show bursts of
414 publications in certain years (2015). This might indicate a growing preference for open-access
415 publishing in Indian biodiversity research. Established journals like *Current Science*, *Biodiversity*
416 *and Conservation* maintain a steady publication output.

417 **Analysis of Countries:**

418 There has been a clear and significant rise in the publication output of India. The overall
419 spread of collaborating countries (57) signifies a global focus on biodiversity (Fig 5d). The
420 presence of countries such as the USA (66 publications), Germany (27), the UK (24), France (18),

421 Switzerland (18), Canada (17), and Australia (14) highlights significant collaboration with
422 developed nations. The inclusion of countries like Brazil (10), China (11), South Africa (7),
423 Argentina (6), and Kenya (5) indicates a growing collaboration with other biodiversity-rich
424 developing nations. This could be due to the shared challenges and opportunities in biodiversity
425 conservation and the recognition of the value of South-South collaboration. Some countries like
426 the Netherlands and Spain, showed an initial rise in publications, followed by a plateau. The
427 substantial growth in the number of collaborating countries, from zero in 2001 to 28 in 2023,
428 highlights a global focus on biodiversity research and international efforts to address this
429 challenge. India's average citations per article (13.9) suggest a moderate impact compared with
430 some developed collaborators (e.g. USA: 43.7, Germany: 33). This may indicate areas for
431 improvement in the visibility and dissemination of research. The exceptionally high average
432 citation rate for the Czech Republic (304) could be due to a specific and highly impactful joint
433 research project. The presence of developed nations like the USA, UK, Germany, France,
434 Australia, Belgium, Italy among the most cited countries highlights the potential benefits India
435 derives from collaborating with these research powerhouses. While collaborations with developed
436 nations like Switzerland and Canada appear frequently, their average citation rate is lower.

437 **Analysis of Keywords:**

438 From the most frequent words of Keywords Plus, 'biodiversity' (49 occurrences),
439 'conservation' (36), 'diversity' (34), and 'biodiversity conservation' (11) remain prominent.
440 'Patterns' (24), 'dynamics' (14), 'richness' (9), 'species diversity' (9), and 'beta diversity' (7)
441 highlight the focus on uncovering patterns and processes that shape biodiversity across various
442 scales. 'Evolution' (8) suggests research on the evolutionary origins and diversification of Indian
443 biota. 'Climate change' (16), 'deforestation' (10), and 'impacts' (9) emphasise a continued focus

444 on understanding the threats posed by climate change and human activities. ‘Vegetation’ (17) and
445 ‘forest’ (10) suggest a specific interest in the impacts on forest ecosystems. ‘Ecology’ (10),
446 ‘communities’ (7), ‘assemblages’ (5), and ‘habitat’ (4) indicate research on ecological interactions
447 within communities and the importance of habitat characteristics for biodiversity. ‘Land-use’ (7)
448 and ‘management’ (17) highlight research on how land-use practices influence biodiversity and
449 the development of effective management strategies. ‘Carbon’ (7) and ‘biomass’ (6) suggest
450 studies on the role of biodiversity in carbon storage and ecosystem functioning. ‘Western-ghats’
451 (13), ‘India’ (7), and ‘Garhwal Himalaya’ (4) continue to show a focus on specific geographical
452 regions. ‘National Park’ (7) and ‘protected areas’ (7) indicate research on protected areas as
453 conservation tools. ‘Food’ (4) and ‘knowledge’ (5) hint at the links between biodiversity and food
454 security, and the potential of traditional knowledge in conservation.

455 From the most frequent words of authors’ keywords, ‘conservation’ (26), ‘biodiversity
456 conservation’ (4), and ‘protected areas’ (6) highlight the primary goal of conserving India’s
457 biodiversity. ‘Western ghats’ (9) and ‘Himalaya’ (7) indicate a focus on these critical biodiversity
458 hotspots. ‘Climate change’ (16), ‘deforestation’ (6), and ‘fragmentation’ (5) highlight research on
459 significant threats to Indian biodiversity. ‘Remote sensing’ (10) suggests the use of technology for
460 monitoring these threats. ‘Restoration’ (5) and ‘sustainable development’ (4) indicate research on
461 strategies to restore degraded ecosystems and achieve sustainable development alongside
462 conservation. ‘Forest’ (7) and ‘forests’ (3) maintain their importance. ‘Ecosystem services’ (6)
463 highlights the economic and societal value of biodiversity. ‘Environmental filtering’ (5), ‘species
464 richness’ (4), ‘beta diversity’ (3), and ‘genetic diversity’ (3) suggest research on how
465 environmental factors and human actions shape biodiversity patterns. ‘Traditional knowledge’ (4)
466 underscores the potential of integrating indigenous knowledge into conservation efforts. Keywords

467 like ‘soil organic carbon’ (4), ‘food security’ (4), and ‘agriculture’ (4) hint at research on the links
468 between biodiversity, ecosystem functioning, and human well-being. ‘Access and benefit sharing’
469 (2) points towards research on equitable sharing of benefits arising from the use of genetic
470 resources.

471 **Analysis of topics and themes:**

472 From the trending topics of Keywords Plus (Fig 5e), ‘biodiversity conservation’ exhibits a
473 sustained rise throughout the period, peaking in 2022 (36 occurrences). This finding confirms the
474 enduring focus on conserving India's rich biodiversity. ‘Biodiversity’ itself shows a similar trend,
475 peaking in 2021 (49). ‘Patterns’ shows a rise from 2016 onwards, peaking in 2020 (24). This
476 suggests a growing interest in understanding spatial and temporal patterns of biodiversity.
477 ‘Dynamics’ exhibits a similar trend, peaking in 2018 (14), indicating a focus on how biodiversity
478 changes over time. ‘Ecology’ and ‘community’ show initial interest in 2008, with a later
479 resurgence, suggesting a renewed focus on ecological processes shaping biodiversity patterns.
480 ‘Deforestation’ exhibits a strong trend from 2013-2018 to (10), highlighting a period of heightened
481 concern about deforestation as a major threat. ‘Climate change’ shows a later rise from 2018
482 onwards, peaking in 2021 (16), suggesting a growing focus on its potential impacts. ‘Conservation’
483 and ‘management’ show sustained growth throughout the period, peaking in 2022 (36 and 17).
484 This emphasises the importance of developing effective conservation strategies. ‘Western Ghats’
485 maintains a strong presence throughout the period (13), indicating sustained research interest in
486 this critical biodiversity hotspot. ‘Protected areas’ show a trend from 2014 to 2020 (7), suggesting
487 growing interest in the role of protected areas in conservation. Emerging topics like ‘land-use’ (7),
488 ‘impacts’ (9), ‘biomass’ (6), ‘carbon’ (7), and ‘framework’ (5) indicate research efforts on the

489 ecological and societal impacts of biodiversity changes, the role of biodiversity in carbon
490 sequestration, and the development of effective conservation frameworks.

491 From the trending topics of authors' keywords, 'fragmentation' showed an initial rise from
492 2008 to 2017 (5 occurrences), highlighting early concerns about habitat fragmentation as a threat
493 to biodiversity. 'Deforestation' exhibits a later trend from 2013 to 2018 (6), suggesting a period of
494 heightened focus on deforestation as a major driver of habitat loss. 'Conservation' shows a rise
495 from 2013 to 2019 (26), highlighting a growing emphasis on developing effective conservation
496 strategies. 'Remote sensing' exhibits a trend from 2012 to 2020 (10), indicating the growing
497 adoption of technology for monitoring biodiversity threats like deforestation and habitat
498 fragmentation. 'Forest' shows a trend from 2016 to 2020 (7), suggesting continued research
499 interest in forest ecosystems, likely linked to deforestation concerns. 'Himalaya' exhibits a rise
500 from 2016 to 2022 (7), indicating growing research focus on this critical biodiversity region
501 alongside the Western Ghats. 'Climate change' shows a strong rise from 2016 to 2022 (16),
502 highlighting a recent surge in research on its potential impacts on Indian biodiversity. New topics
503 like 'indicators' (5), 'ecosystem services' (6), and 'restoration' (5) indicate emerging research on
504 developing methods for monitoring biodiversity change, understanding the value of biodiversity
505 for human well-being, and restoring degraded ecosystems.

506 From the thematic map of Keywords Plus (Fig 5f), biodiversity and conservation were the
507 dominant themes, evident by the high frequency of keywords, such as 'biodiversity conservation',
508 'conservation biology', 'threats', 'management', and 'protected areas'. A significant focus lies on
509 analysing patterns of biodiversity across India. This is reflected by keywords like 'diversity',
510 'patterns', 'species richness', 'distribution', 'habitat', and 'vegetation'. The impact of climate
511 change on biodiversity is a growing concern, as indicated by keywords like 'climate change',

512 'climate impact', and 'vulnerability'. The link between agriculture and biodiversity is another
513 prominent theme, with keywords such as agriculture, agricultural governance, and 'land-use
514 change'. It also highlights research on specific aspects of biodiversity, including: dispersal patterns
515 of species (e.g. 'dispersal', 'phylogeography'), evolutionary processes shaping biodiversity (e.g.
516 'evolution', 'selection'), and application of molecular tools for biodiversity assessment (e.g.
517 'DNA', 'genetic markers').

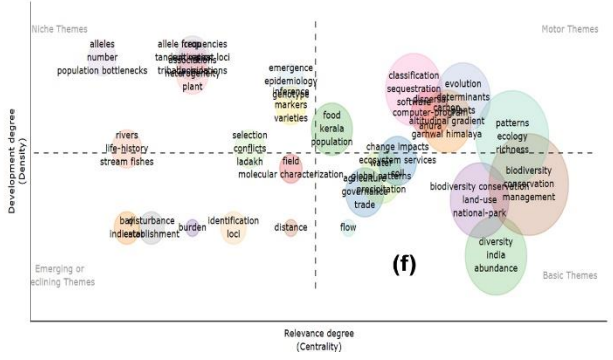
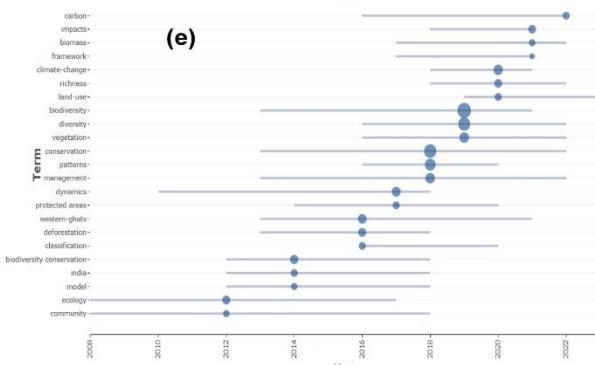
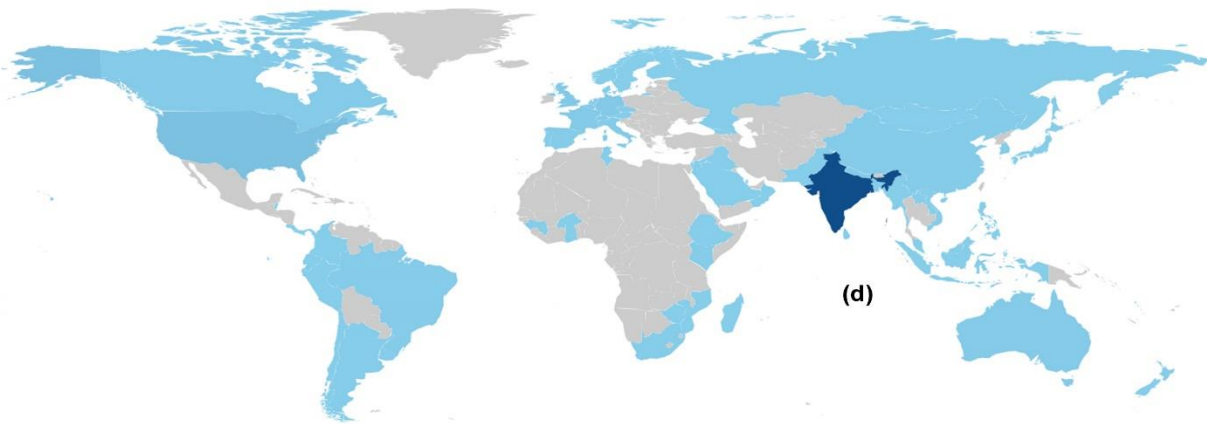
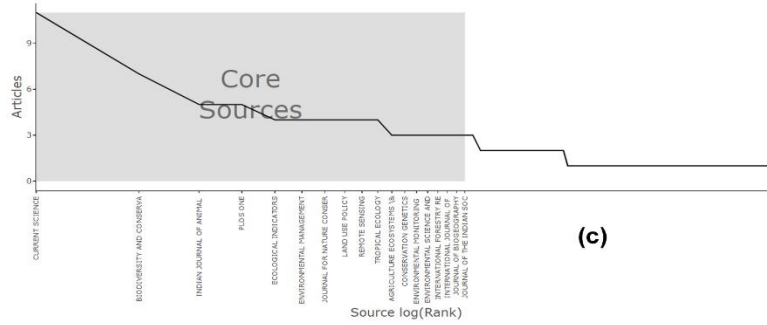
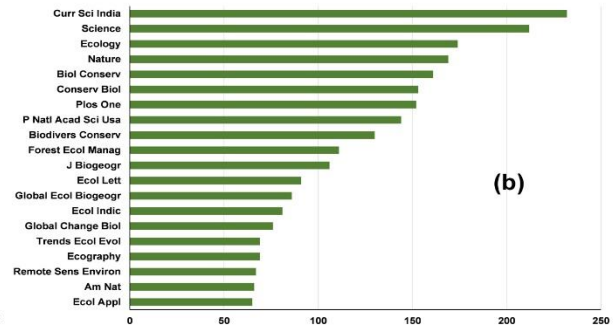
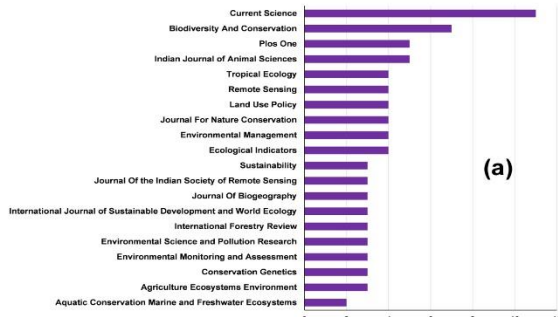


Figure 5. Characteristics of Biodiversity research on India. (a) most relevant journals, (b) most locally cited journals, (c) distribution of journals as per Bradford's law, (d) scientific production of countries, (e) trending topics of Keywords Plus, and (f) thematic map of Keywords Plus.

520 From the thematic map of the authors' keywords, conservation biology was the dominant
521 theme, evident from the high frequency of keywords such as 'conservation', 'conservation biology',
522 'threatened', 'protected areas', and 'species richness'. The cluster 'climate change' and the
523 frequent occurrence of keywords such as 'climate change', 'climate impact', 'vulnerability', and
524 'adaptation' highlight a growing concern regarding the impact of climate change on Indian
525 biodiversity. The 'India' cluster along with terms like 'Western Ghats', 'Himalayas', and 'Eastern
526 Ghats' indicate a strong emphasis on understanding biodiversity patterns in specific Indian regions.
527 Keywords like 'remote sensing', 'GIS', 'spatial scale', and 'fragmentation' suggest a significant
528 focus on applying spatial tools and techniques to biodiversity research. The results suggest a strong
529 focus on documenting biodiversity patterns ('diversity', 'species composition') and using this
530 information for conservation efforts ('biodiversity conservation'). There is an interest in applying
531 advanced tools like molecular markers ('genetic') to study genetic diversity and population
532 connectivity.

533 **Analysis of collaborations:**

534 Six clusters were found in the collaboration network of countries (Fig 6a). Cluster 1
535 (dominant) features India along with developed nations like the USA, UK, Germany, France, and
536 others (Italy, Switzerland, Canada, Australia). This cluster represents the core of international
537 collaboration in biodiversity research in India. Cluster 2 (developing countries) includes Indonesia,
538 Ghana, and some African nations (Burkina Faso, Guinea, Vanuatu). This cluster suggests a South-
539 South collaboration on biodiversity research, potentially focusing on issues like tropical ecology,

540 conservation in developing countries, and sustainable resource management. Cluster 3 (Europe
541 and South Africa) features Spain, Portugal, South Africa, Russia, and Eastern European countries
542 (Czech Republic, Belgium). Potential areas of focus include conservation biology, wildlife
543 management, and ecological modelling. Cluster 4 (Latin America) includes Costa Rica, Colombia,
544 Belize, Chile, Panama, and Ecuador, likely focusing on rainforest ecology, conservation in the
545 tropics, and issues like climate change impacts on biodiversity. Cluster 5 (West Asia and Southeast
546 Asia) features Pakistan, Korea, Singapore, and Georgia. Potential areas of focus include Central
547 Asian biodiversity, conservation challenges in these regions, and sustainable development. Cluster
548 6 (Scandinavia and Japan) includes Denmark, Sweden, and Japan.

549 Seven clusters can be found in the collaboration network of the authors (Fig 6b). Cluster 1
550 is centered on Behra, Dhyani, and Gopuraju, with moderate betweenness and closeness values.
551 Cluster 2 features Joshi PK, Roy PS, Chavan, Das, Joshi C, and Kale. The presence of Roy PS,
552 known for conservation biology research, suggests a potential focus on conservation-related
553 collaboration. Cluster 3 includes Ravindranath, Chaturvedi, and Jayaraman. The presence of
554 Ravindranath (known for ecosystem services research) and Chaturvedi (a leading forest ecologist)
555 suggest a focus on sustainable forest management and ecosystem services. Cluster 4 features Arora
556 R. Cluster 5 included Bhattacharjee and Chattopadhyay. Cluster 6 features Jha, Reddy, Dadhwal,
557 Diwakar, and Dutta. The presence of Jha (known for human-wildlife interactions) and Reddy (a
558 conservation biologist) suggests a potential focus on human-wildlife conflict and conservation.
559 Cluster 7 included Negi, Pathak, Bhatt, Rawal, and Dhyani. The presence of Negi (a Himalayan
560 ecologist) suggests a focus on biodiversity research in the Indian Himalayas.

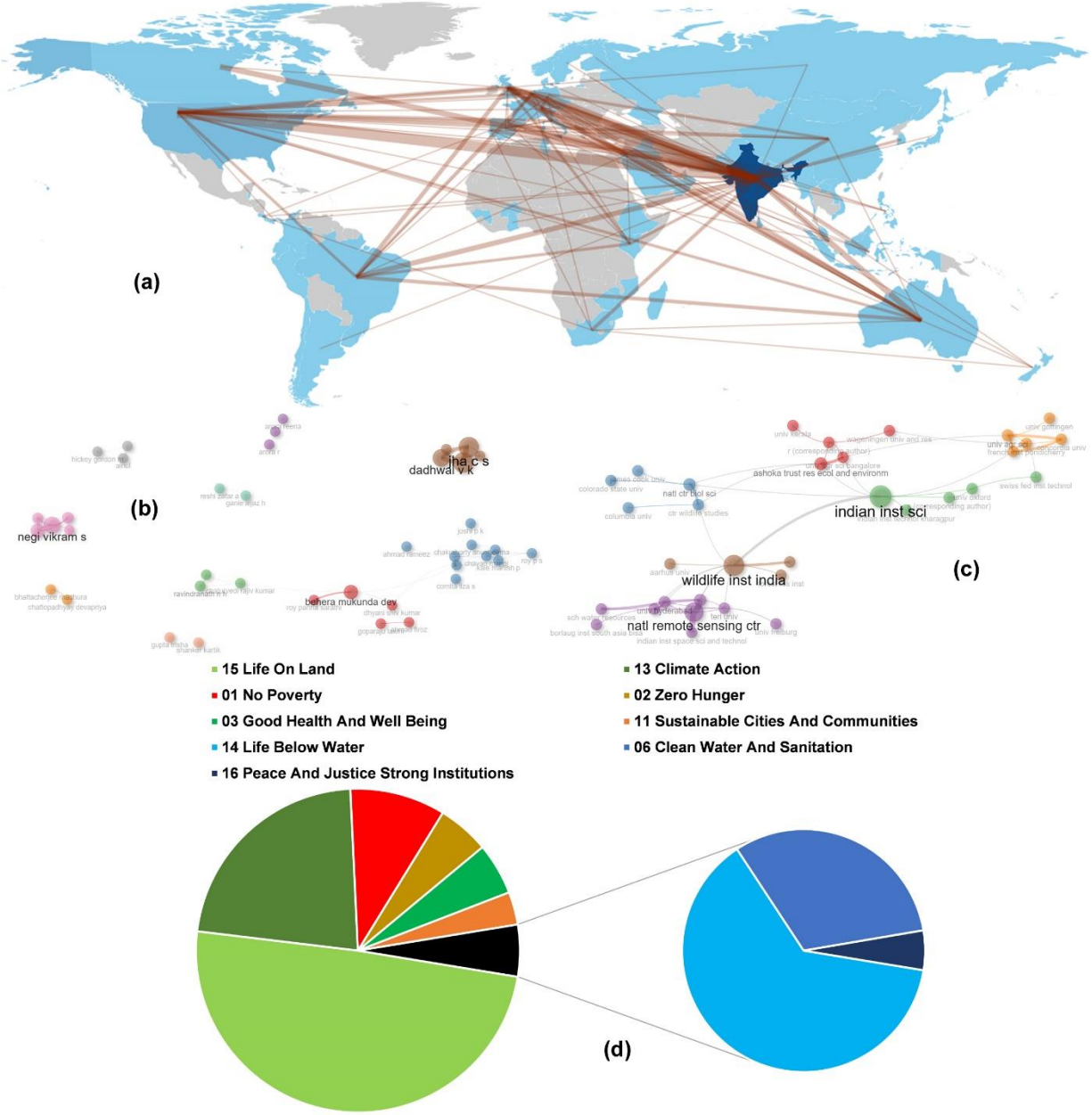
561 Six clusters were found in the collaboration network of institutions (Fig 6c). Cluster 1
562 features the ATREE, a leading Indian environmental research institution. ATREE's focus on

563 ecological and environmental issues suggests that collaborations are likely to be centred around
564 these areas. Cluster 2 (Wildlife and Conservation) features the NCBS, CWS, and James Cook
565 University (Australia). Cluster 3 (IITs and International Collaboration) features the IISc and IITs
566 alongside the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology and University of Oxford. Cluster 4 (Remote
567 Sensing and Resource Management) features the NRSC, IIRS, IITs, TERI University, and the
568 NIRS. Cluster 5 (Agricultural Sciences and Biodiversity) features agricultural universities in India
569 and abroad (University of Göttingen) alongside the French Institute of Pondicherry and Suri Sehgal
570 Centre for Biodiversity and Conservation. Cluster 6 features the WII as a central node with
571 collaborations likely focused on wildlife biology, conservation management, and policy.

572 **Analysis of association with UN Sustainable Development Goals:**

573 The vast majority of publications (>81%) associated with SDG 15 (Life on Land)
574 emphasise the importance of biodiversity research to our knowledge of and ability to preserve
575 terrestrial ecosystems (Fig 6d). A considerable percentage of publications (37%) included a link
576 to SDG 13 (Climate Action), emphasising the established relationship between climate change and
577 biodiversity loss. Other SDGs such as No Poverty (SDG 1), Zero Hunger (SDG 2), Good Health
578 and Well-Being (SDG 3), and Sustainable Cities and Communities (SDG 11), are associated with
579 fewer publications.

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Figure 6. Characteristics of Biodiversity research on India. (a) collaboration network of countries, (b) collaboration network of authors, (c) collaboration network of institutions, and (d) publications' association with UN-SDGs.

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584 **Policy suggestions:**

585 Based on the outcomes from this analysis, we would like to convey a few suggestions to
586 policymakers, which, we hope, would be helpful to make Indian biodiversity more prosperous.

587 1. *Foster targeted international collaborations and knowledge sharing*: Encourage and support
588 international research collaborations for knowledge exchange and increased research visibility,
589 particularly with industrialised countries with high citation rates such as the United States, the
590 United Kingdom, and Germany. Encourage South-South cooperation to exchange best practices
591 and tackle shared issues with other emerging nations with high biodiversity (such as China and
592 Brazil). To better understand the social aspects of conservation, promote interdisciplinary research
593 that combines the science of biodiversity with the social sciences (such as law and sociology).

594 2. *Prioritizing research focus*: To fill in any knowledge gaps, increase the amount of research
595 focused on understudied habitats, such as freshwater and marine biodiversity. Promote studies on
596 the effects of invasive species and other new concerns, such as climate change, on Indian
597 biodiversity. Encourage studies on the use of biodiversity research for broader social benefit in
598 agriculture, food security, and ecosystem services valuation.

599 3. *Enhancing research quality and dissemination*: Promote the publication of Indian research
600 findings in high-impact, open-access journals to increase their prominence and accessibility. To
601 develop a new generation of highly qualified biodiversity experts, research mentorship programs
602 should be strengthened. Encourage the development of researchers' abilities to use cutting-edge
603 instruments like ecological modelling, genetic methods, and remote sensing.

604 4. *Bridge research and policy through focused institutional collaborations*: Encourage closer ties
605 between scientists studying biodiversity and decision makers to guarantee that studies influence
606 practical conservation plans. Establish a systematic structure for joint research initiatives between
607 think tanks focused on environmental policy, such as ATREE, and wildlife research institutes,

608 such as WII. Ultimately, this improves conservation results by facilitating the translation of
609 scientific findings from organisations such as WII into workable policy recommendations through
610 organisations such as ATREE. Invest to create frameworks for conservation grounded in science
611 and monitoring procedures to ensure successful implementation. Encourage the incorporation of
612 indigenous tribes' traditional ecological knowledge into conservation plans.

613 *5. Building a robust research infrastructure:* Through public-private partnerships and government
614 grants, increase financing for biodiversity research. Make investments to upgrade state-of-the-art
615 labs and field research facilities that are part of the research infrastructure of universities' and
616 research institutions'. Encourage the establishment of national repositories of biodiversity data so
617 that scientists and decision makers can freely access this information.

618 *6. Leverage expertise for focused research in specific ecosystems:* Promote cooperation between
619 organisations with experience in understudied ecosystems and existing research clusters. For
620 instance, work with experts in forest ecology and marine research organisations to conduct studies
621 on mangrove ecosystems, which are essential for the biodiversity of coastal areas. This makes use
622 of the current knowledge to conduct targeted studies on important but little-studied ecosystems.

623 **Conclusion:**

624 This bibliometric analysis provides useful information regarding the current state of
625 biodiversity research in India. Although this study included only 223 publications, the authors
626 ensured that all of the selected studies were exclusively focused on India, whether on a national,
627 regional, or local scale. The data revealed a thriving research climate, with an increasing number
628 of publications. Collaboration networks have revealed a solid foundation for international
629 collaborations with industrialised countries, particularly for knowledge transfer and increased
630 research visibility. Furthermore, prospective South-South relationships with developing nations

631 were identified, demonstrating the potential for knowledge exchange and solving common
632 difficulties. Thematic analysis found a strong emphasis on conservation biology, notably in terms
633 of human-wildlife interactions and sustainable forest management. However, research on
634 understudied environments, such as marine and freshwater biodiversity, appears to be restricted.
635 Examination of collaboration networks revealed possible research gaps. Significant clusters exist
636 in specific areas, such as Himalayan ecology and forest management, and combining them with
637 knowledge of understudied ecosystems could be advantageous.

638 This study design was subject to specific limitations. The datasets used in this study were
639 sourced from the Web of Science (WoS) database, which is considered one of the most prominent
640 global scientific databases. However, it is recommended that WoS be supplemented with other
641 reputable international databases, such as Dimensions, Google Scholar, and Scopus. This
642 limitation may contribute to the underrepresentation of lower-middle-class and lower-income
643 nations such as India in this study. Some argue that non-mainstream journals should be given
644 greater weight, because they play a role in disseminating new and potentially valuable knowledge
645 (Vessuri et al., 2014; Chavarro et al., 2017). Although keywords in abstracts and titles may indicate
646 the content of a published paper, they may not always accurately convey the substance of an article.
647 The conclusions of the analysis may be misinterpreted because the authors' intentions and writings
648 in the article are not always apparent in the title or abstract. To avoid this issue, we recommend
649 that future studies conduct more comprehensive content analysis to determine the impact of
650 important publications on the discipline.

651 India can strengthen its status as a biodiversity research leader by implementing policy
652 recommendations and leveraging existing research strengths. This would not only improve

653 academic contributions, but also contribute critical scientific knowledge for successful
654 conservation measures, assuring the long-term preservation of India's diverse natural heritage.

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676 **CRedit (Contributor Roles Taxonomy) roles:**

677 Conceptualization: AR; Data curation: AR; Formal analysis: AR; Funding acquisition: KP;
678 Investigation: AR; Methodology: AR; Project administration: KP; Resources: AR; Software: AR;
679 Supervision: KP; Validation: AR; Visualization: AR; Writing – original draft: AR; Writing –
680 review and editing: AR, NG, KP;

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