

1 Scientific evidence in biodiversity conservation rarely crosses language barriers in
2 citation networks

3 Kelsey Hannah^{1,2,*}, Richard A. Fuller^{1,2}, Rebecca K Smith³, William J Sutherland³ and Tatsuya Amano^{1,2}

4 ¹ School of The Environment, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Qld 4067, Australia

5 ² Centre for Biodiversity and Conservation Science, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Qld,
6 Australia

7 ³ Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom

8 * corresponding author: kelsey.hannah@uq.net.au

ABSTRACT

10 Using relevant scientific evidence is crucial to effectively conserve species and ecosystems worldwide.
11 Currently, evidence that is available only in non-English languages is severely underutilised. To
12 understand most underutilised languages of evidence and factors that facilitate the use of non-English-
13 language evidence, this study analyses the citation patterns of articles testing the effectiveness of
14 conservation actions, published in English and 15 non-English languages. Our results showed that non-
15 English-language articles received significantly fewer English citations than English-language articles.
16 Hungarian, Polish, Korean, and Russian articles were particularly under-cited in English. Despite lower
17 English citations, many non-English-language articles had high citations within their own languages,
18 indicating their value within local conservation communities. Non-English-language articles with English
19 abstracts received more English citations. The content of the article, such as having a more robust study
20 design or assessing threatened species, was not significantly associated with the number of English
21 citations received. Our findings highlight the importance of increasing the visibility and recognition of
22 non-English-language articles, especially those in currently underutilised languages, for a more
23 comprehensive understanding of global conservation challenges. Providing a translated English abstract
24 has a potential to increase the readership of an article by increasing the accessibility to those who can
25 understand English.

26 Keywords

27 Evidence-based conservation, evidence synthesis, language barriers, language bias, conservation science,
28 citation patterns, non-English language literature, metascience

INTRODUCTION

30 Conservation science intends to generate evidence that informs conservation decision-making (Wilson *et*
31 *al.*, 2016). Evidence-based conservation focuses on implementing a ‘best-practice’ approach, based on
32 evidence documented in the scientific literature as well as other types of knowledge, such as traditional
33 and local ecological knowledge (Sutherland *et al.*, 2004; Gillson *et al.*, 2019; Hosen, Nakamura and
34 Hamzah, 2020; Jessen *et al.*, 2022). The need for effective conservation intervention cannot be overstated,
35 with a 69% global decline in monitored vertebrate populations since 1970, and 1 million species
36 threatened with extinction (Brondizio *et al.*, 2019).

37 Evidence-based conservation builds on evidence synthesis—the systematic collation of relevant scientific
38 evidence from multiple sources. However, successful evidence synthesis, and therefore successful
39 evidence-based conservation requires a reliable evidence base (Christie *et al.*, 2021). Biases within the
40 evidence collated through evidence synthesis can be detrimental to environmental outcomes since it is not
41 always appropriate to make generalizations or apply research from one particular context to another
42 (Gillson *et al.*, 2019; Christie *et al.*, 2021). To develop a comprehensive evidence base, evidence
43 synthesis needs to search for evidence in as many relevant sources as possible (*Guidelines and Standards*
44 *for Evidence synthesis in Environmental Management (Version 5.1)*, 2022).

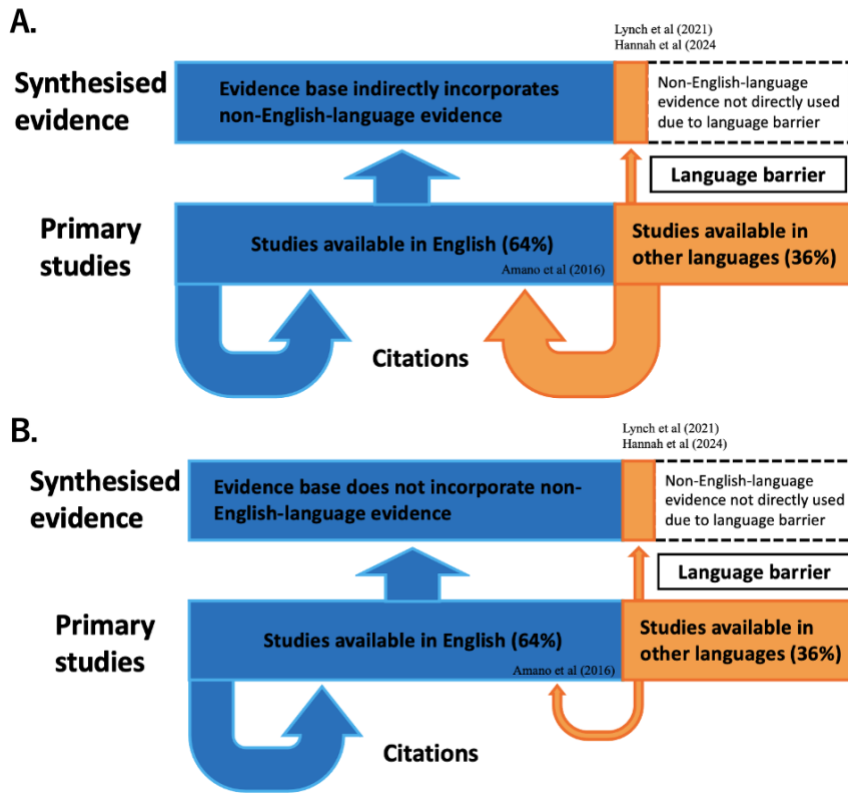
45 Although the global dominance of English as the common language of science has fostered a greater
46 capacity for global information sharing and collaboration (Di Bitetti and Ferreras, 2017), it has also led to
47 information in other languages being undervalued and underutilised (Lynch *et al.*, 2021; Hannah *et al.*,
48 2024). Non-English-language literature is an important information source in conservation science,
49 providing alternative descriptions or different cultural understandings within the scientific discourse
50 (Díaz-Reviriego *et al.*, 2024). Non-English-language literature can also provide scientific evidence on
51 species, regions and ecosystems that may be otherwise undocumented in English language literature alone
52 (Angulo *et al.*, 2021). Similarly, studies published in lower impact factor journals, such as much non-
53 English language literature, can be an important recourse in informing domestic conservation decisions
54 (Amano, Berdejo-Espinola, *et al.*, 2023; Choi *et al.*, 2024). Omitting non-English-language literature
55 from evidence synthesis can lead to bias in the resulting datasets and mislead conservation decision-
56 making (Konno *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, it is important to ensure that all available evidence has been
57 collected, including evidence across multiple languages, to ensure the best possible environmental
58 outcomes are being achieved.

59 Many English-language reviews with a global scope tend to only cite literature published in English
60 (Lynch *et al.*, 2021; Hannah *et al.*, 2024) often based on the assumption that any important scientific
61 information is available in English-language literature (Amano, Berdejo-Espinola, *et al.*, 2021). If non-
62 English-language literature is being frequently cited by English-language literature (Fig. 1A) this
63 tendency may be inconsequential. In this case, the relevant evidence is being transferred from non-
64 English languages to English, and then to global reviews, which are often intended to inform international
65 decision-making and conservation outcomes (Cook, Possingham and Fuller, 2013). In contrast, if non-

66 English-language literature is not being highly cited by English-language literature (Fig. 1B), there may
67 be a divide between languages, indicating that the scientific evidence being produced in non-English
68 languages may not be reaching global reviews, which will limit its application in decision making and
69 conservation outcomes, as their evidence base can be incomplete and biased (Christie *et al.*, 2021).

70 Few studies to date have assessed the flow of scientific evidence on biodiversity conservation between
71 languages, although investigating this can be a key component in understanding how language barriers
72 impact evidence-based conservation. Cross-language citations can indicate the degree of transfer of
73 scientific evidence between languages. Comprehension of these interactions between languages will allow
74 stakeholders to understand which languages may be underrepresented in informing conservation
75 decisions. For instance, it can be assumed that languages with lower rates of cross-language citations
76 could produce information largely unknown to the international scientific community. Understanding this
77 information flow can help reduce the resources needed to assess conservation literature in multiple
78 languages.

79 Using a global database of primary studies on the effectiveness of conservation interventions, published
80 in English and 15 non-English languages (Sutherland *et al.*, 2019; Amano, *et al.*, 2021), this paper
81 addresses this knowledge gap by investigating the language patterns that exist within citation networks
82 for conservation articles of global importance. The specific objectives of this paper are three-fold: (i)
83 assessing the strength and direction of citational links between different languages to understand how
84 conservation-related evidence flows among different languages, (ii) identifying any largely isolated
85 languages that receive few cross-language citations, and (iii) investigating factors that influence the
86 international visibility of non-English language literature, as measured by the number of English-
87 language citations. This study will allow us to test the assumption that non-English-language literature
88 does not need to be directly cited in global reviews, as the information filters through by being cited in
89 English language literature (Fig. 1A). Ultimately, the global information flow within conservation science
90 is an important process that should be understood to ensure that non-English language literature is being
91 appropriately utilized, and to understand any gaps and barriers that may exist.



92
 93 *Figure 1: The importance of assessing citations across multiple languages. A. A system wherein scientific*
 94 *evidence published in non-English languages is well represented by English language studies, which are*
 95 *predominantly cited in reviews with a global scope. B. A system wherein evidence published in non-*
 96 *English languages is not widely cited by English language studies, meaning that this information is rarely*
 97 *present in evidence bases underpinning global reviews.*

98 **Methods**

99 **Database**

100 This paper analyses articles published in English and non-English languages providing evidence on the
 101 effectiveness of conservation interventions. The database of non-English-language articles was
 102 established in Amano et al., (2021), and contains 1,234 scientific articles written in 16 different non-
 103 English languages. Using a discipline-wide literature search method (Sutherland *et al.*, 2019), these
 104 articles were manually screened from a range of relevant journals. Articles were included in the database
 105 if they met pre-defined inclusion criteria; A: articles that measure the effect of an intervention that might
 106 be done to conserve biodiversity, and B: articles that measure the effect of an intervention that might be
 107 done to change human behaviour for the benefit of biodiversity (see Amano, Berdejo-Espinola, *et al.*,
 108 2021 for more details). Articles in this database range from 1915 to 2020, with the median year of
 109 publication being 2009. The inclusion criteria did not specifically limit articles based on species.
 110 Therefore, the database covers a wide range of species, including terrestrial and aquatic plants and

111 animals. This study utilised a subset of the articles from this database; we selected journal articles that
112 assessed the three taxa: birds, mammals, and amphibians to allow for comparison between taxa (n = 329
113 total articles). These articles spanned from 1963 – 2020, with a median year of publication of 2009. Our
114 database for analysis contained articles across 15 different languages, with the largest number of articles
115 being Japanese (n = 93), followed by German (n = 55), Spanish (n = 39) and Russian (n = 28).

116 We also used a discipline-wide literature database provided by Conservation Evidence
117 (<https://www.conservationevidence.com/>), which contained 11,847 articles, predominantly written in
118 English, but also containing a number of non-English-language papers. This database contained journal
119 articles, as well as theses. The inclusion criteria for this database are the same as described for the non-
120 English-language database (Sutherland *et al.*, 2019). Articles in this database range from 1912 to 2022,
121 with the median year of publication being 2006. Similar to the non-English-language database, the
122 inclusion of articles is not based on the species covered by the study, so a wide range of species are
123 covered within this database. To allow for more manageable data extraction, a random sample of papers
124 within the three taxonomic categories was taken from the Conservation Evidence database, rather than
125 investigating all articles. A sample size of 171 English-language articles was determined by using the
126 sample formula in the R package *samplingbook* (Manitz *et al.*, 2021), assuming a confidence interval of
127 0.15, an expected proportion of English-language citations being 50% of total citations. Because citation
128 patterns may vary over time, we attempted to maintain the same temporal structure as the non-English-
129 language database within each taxonomic group (birds, mammals, amphibians). To achieve this, we
130 performed stratified random sampling, where articles were randomly selected within decade / taxon
131 combinations (e.g. 3 articles from the time period 1990 – 2000 in the category birds). The articles in this
132 sample ranged from 1971 to 2019, with a median publication year of 2007.5.

133 Both databases already contained general metadata relating to each article, such as the title, author names,
134 year and journal name. The non-English language database also contained information relating to the
135 language of the article.

136 **Data Extraction**

137 Each article was individually searched on Google Scholar (<https://scholar.google.com.au/>) by looking up
138 either English language or non-English language titles (if applicable) between 9/6/2023 and 29/8/2023. If
139 an article could not be found using Google Scholar, it was also searched using Google
140 (<https://www.google.com/>) and the University of Queensland institutional library
141 (<https://www.library.uq.edu.au/>). If found on these platforms, the article was searched again in Google
142 Scholar using the DOI, the non-English-language title or any other identifying information to obtain the
143 citation information from the Google Scholar platform. Articles that were still unable to be located were
144 marked as such and were excluded from the analysis (n = 14 articles in the non-English-language
145 database). For the non-English-language articles, the article was assessed to determine if any English-
146 language title or abstract was provided. Next, the number of citations received by the article was recorded
147 based on information provided on Google Scholar. The citations were then evaluated to determine if there
148 were any self-citations. Self-citations were recorded if any author of the original article appears as an

149 author of the citing article. Finally, each article that had cited the focal article was individually accessed
150 to determine its language. The language of each citing article was determined by pasting either the title of
151 the article or a portion of the main text into Google Translate (<https://translate.google.com/>) and using its
152 language detection feature. The number of citations by language was recorded for each article.

153 The lexical distance between each non-English language and English was recorded using an online
154 linguistic distance calculator from eLinguistics.net (<http://elinguistics.net/>), with a lower value indicating
155 a language is more related to English. The non-English-language database also included lists of the
156 species studied in each article. These species were cross-referenced against the International Union for
157 Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List of Threatened Species version 2023-1
158 (<https://www.iucnredlist.org/>) to determine the conservation status of the species studied in each article.
159 All data extraction was performed from June to August of 2023.

160 **Analysis**

161 Three multivariate models were developed in R Version 2023.06.0+421 (R Core Team, 2019) using the full
162 database of English and non-English-language articles.

163 First, to assess the difference in citation numbers between English and non-English-language articles we
164 ran a negative binomial generalised linear model (GLM) with the number of English citations (i.e., citations
165 by English-language articles) as the response variable, and the language of articles as the explanatory
166 variable. English was used as the reference category. Next, we ran the same GLM but with the total number
167 of citations (i.e., citations by articles in any languages) as the response variable.

168 The third analysis assessed the factors that explain variation in the number of citations by English-language
169 articles. This analysis only used the non-English-language database. The response variable was the number
170 of English citations and the explanatory variables were: year of publication, the availability of an English
171 abstract (yes/no, no is the reference category), study design (more complex/less complex, less complex is
172 the reference category. After, Before-After, and Control-Impact designs were categorised as being less
173 complex, and Before-After-Control-Impact and Randomised Controlled Trial were categorised as more
174 complex, following Christie et al 2019), IUCN status of the study species (threatened/not threatened, not
175 threatened is the reference category. Least Concern and Near Threatened were defined as not threatened,
176 and Vulnerable, Endangered, and Critically Endangered as threatened), taxonomic group
177 (birds/mammals/amphibians, birds is the reference category), lexical distance of article language from
178 English, and the total number of same language citations received by an article.

179 We hypothesised that articles providing their abstracts in English and those in languages that are
180 linguistically closer to English would receive a higher number of citations from English-language article.
181 We used other explanatory variables to control for their impacts. The year of publication of an article would
182 be negatively associated with a higher number of English citations, since older articles have more time to
183 receive citations. Also non-English-language articles that have a larger number of same-language citations
184 are considered of higher importance and may thus also have a higher number of English citations. Articles
185 that focus on threatened species are also expected to have a higher number of English citations due to the

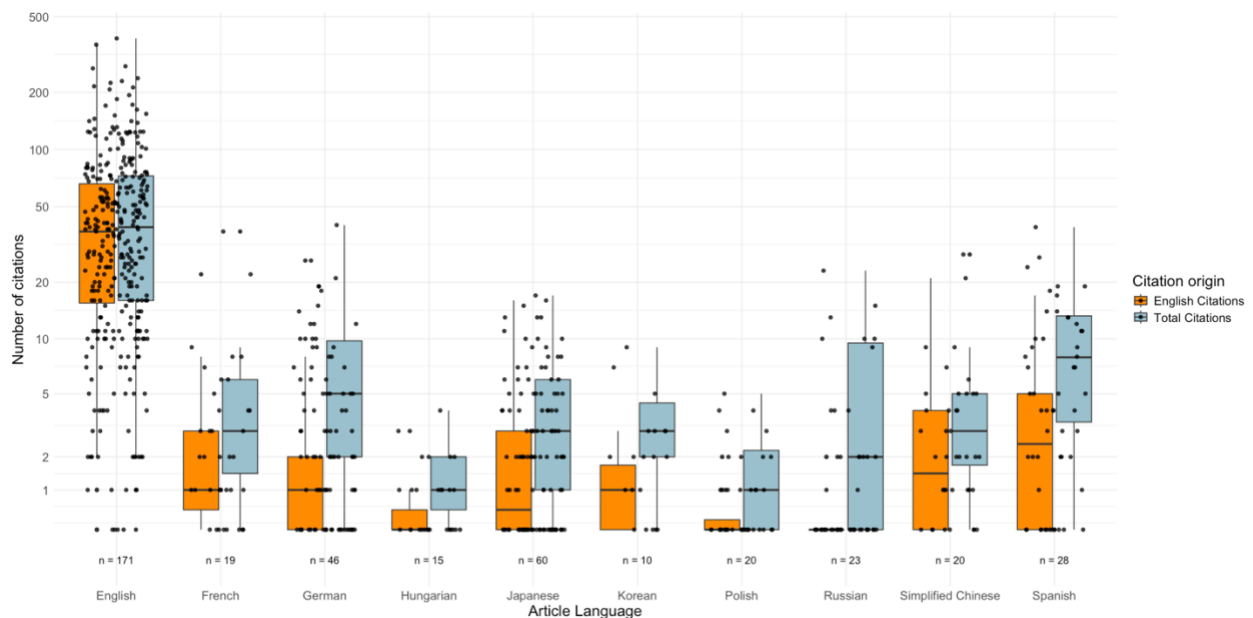
186 conservation importance of the studied species. Non-English-language articles with a more robust study
187 design are also expected to receive a higher number of English citations, since these articles may be
188 perceived as more valid and worth citing.

189 The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was sufficiently small (< 2.96 , calculated with the package *car* in R
190 (Fox and Weisberg, 2019)) for all explanatory variables in the models.

RESULTS

192 The number of English citations among the 329 articles written in non-English languages was generally
 193 low, with a median of 0 (range 0 – 26, Figure 2). Articles in Hungarian, Polish, and Russian in particular
 194 received few English citations, ranging between 0 and 2. In contrast, English-language articles received a
 195 median of 37 English citations (range 0 – 356), and the number of English citations was significantly
 196 lower for articles in all non-English languages compared to English-language articles (Figure 2, Table
 197 S1).

198
 199 While there was little difference between the number of English citations and the total number of citations
 200 for English-language articles, the total number of citations was consistently higher than the number of
 201 English citations for articles in all non-English languages (Figure 2). Most of the non-English-language
 202 citations were from the same language as the original article (Figures 3 and 4). For example, 28% (n=74)
 203 of the assessed non-English-language articles only contained citations within the same language, and 47%
 204 (n=124) contained over 50% of their citations within the same language. This suggests that many of the
 205 non-English-language articles are discovered more from researchers using the same language than from
 206 English. Although the total number of citations received by an article was still significantly lower for all
 207 non-English languages compared to English (Figure 2, Table S1), this result suggests that the extremely
 208 low number of English citations for non-English-language articles is not solely due to the lack of the
 209 importance of the study, but at least partly due to the lack of visibility, or lack of searching effort resulting
 210 from language barriers

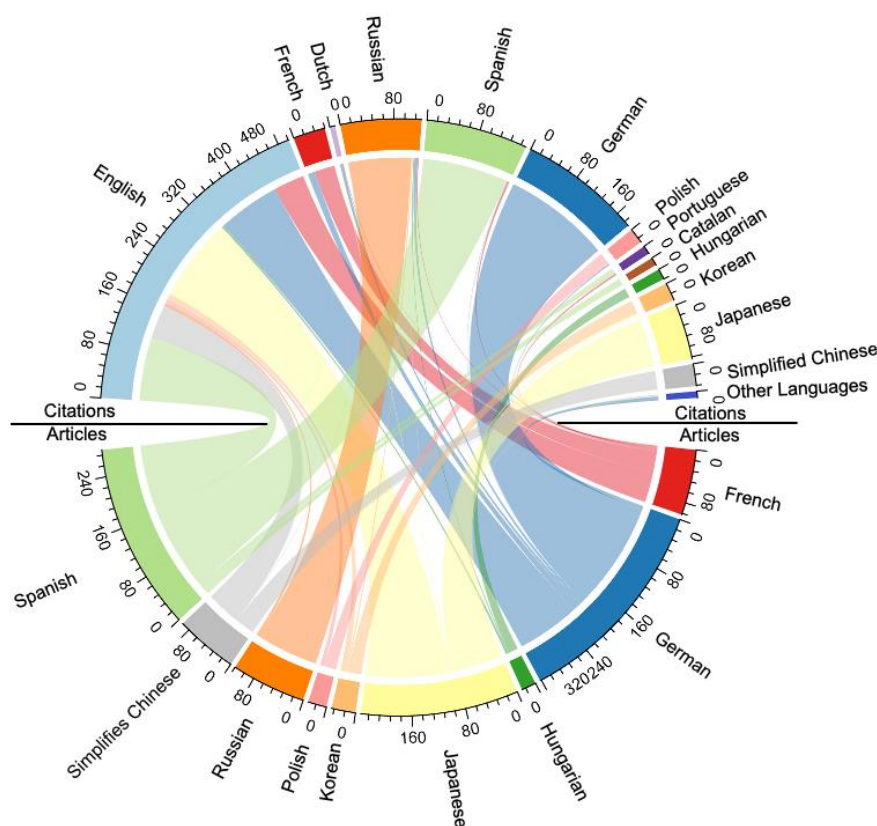


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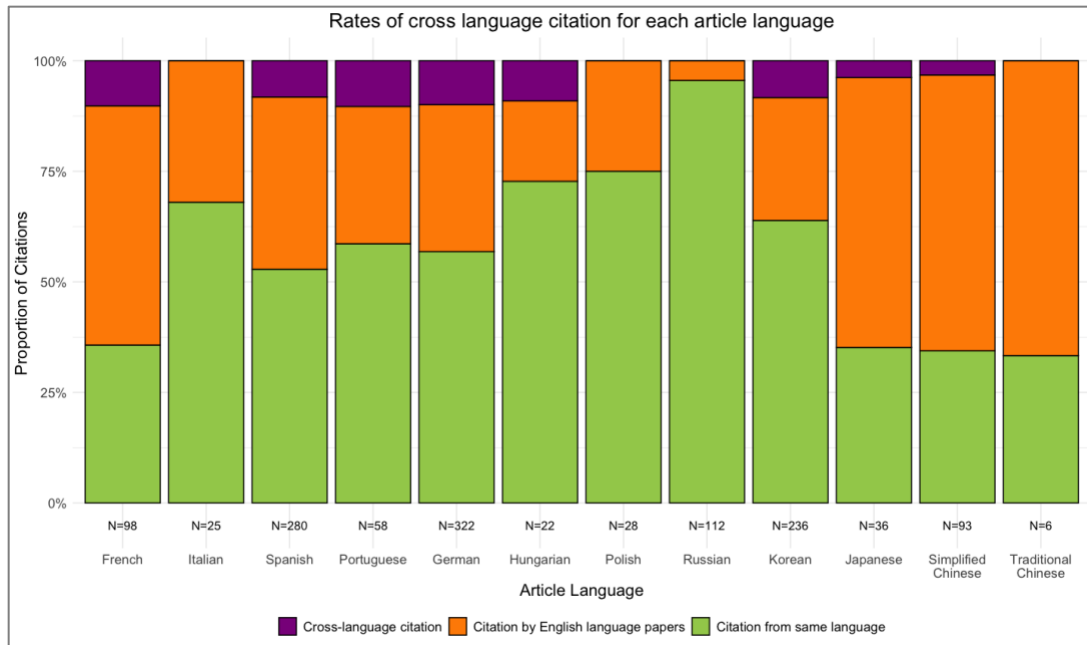
212 *Figure 2: The number of English citations (orange) and the total number of citations (blue) received by*
 213 *articles written in different languages. The middle line within each box represents the median value. The*
 214 *top and bottom of the box denote the first (Q1) and third quartiles (Q3), respectively, indicating the*
 215 *interquartile range (IQR). The whiskers extend to the smallest and largest values within 1.5 times the IQR*

216 from the Q1 and Q3. All individual articles are also plotted as dots. The y-axis has been log10-
217 transformed.

218 When assessing citations to all articles in each non-English language, an average of 56.8% and median of
219 60% of total citations (range: 0% - 100%) were from the same language as the original article (Figures 3
220 and 4). Alternatively, an average of 37.8% and median of 33% of citations (range: 0% - 100%) were from
221 English (Figures 3 and 4). For all languages, other non-English cross-language citations (i.e. articles in
222 languages other than their own or English) was generally very low at 4.3% on average, and a median of
223 0% (range: 0% - 100%. Russian clearly showed the lowest proportion of English citations, followed by
224 Hungarian and Polish (Figure 3). These languages may be considered the most isolated, with limited
225 sharing of their findings internationally. In contrast, French and three East Asian languages (Japanese,
226 simplified Chinese, and traditional Chinese) showed a particularly high proportion of English citations
227 overall (54%, 61%, 62%, and 67%, respectively).

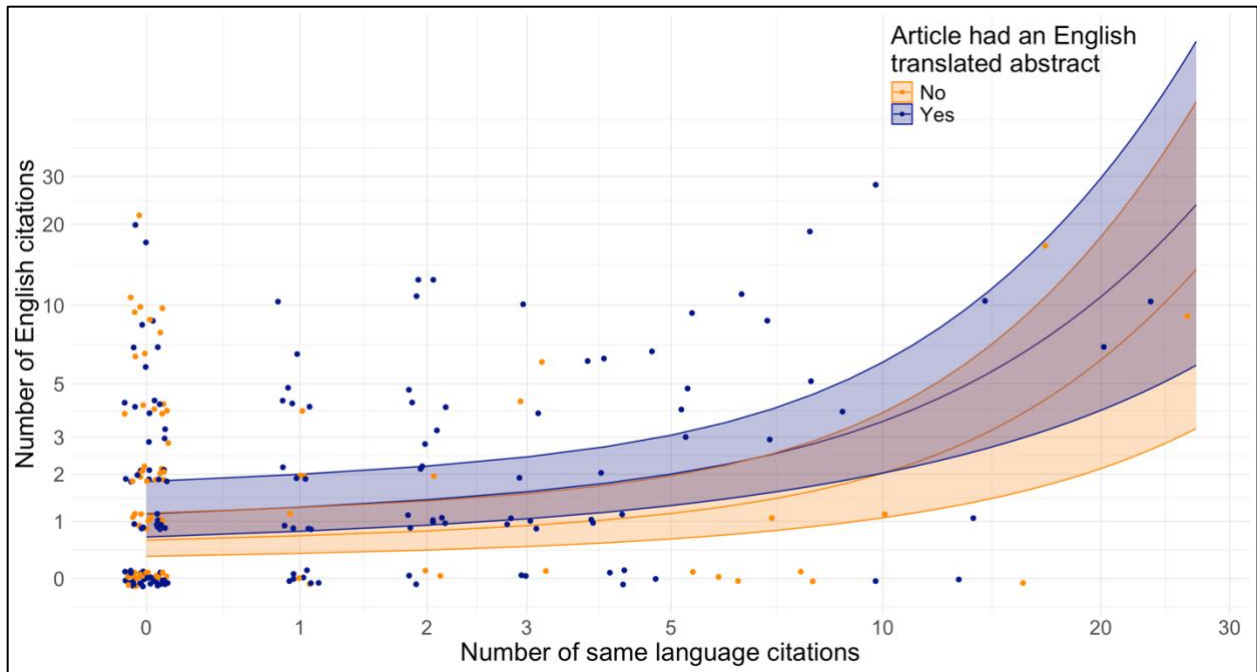


228
229 Figure 3 – Language patterns of citations for non-English language articles. Figure shows the number of
230 citations received in each language. Excludes languages with <10 articles.



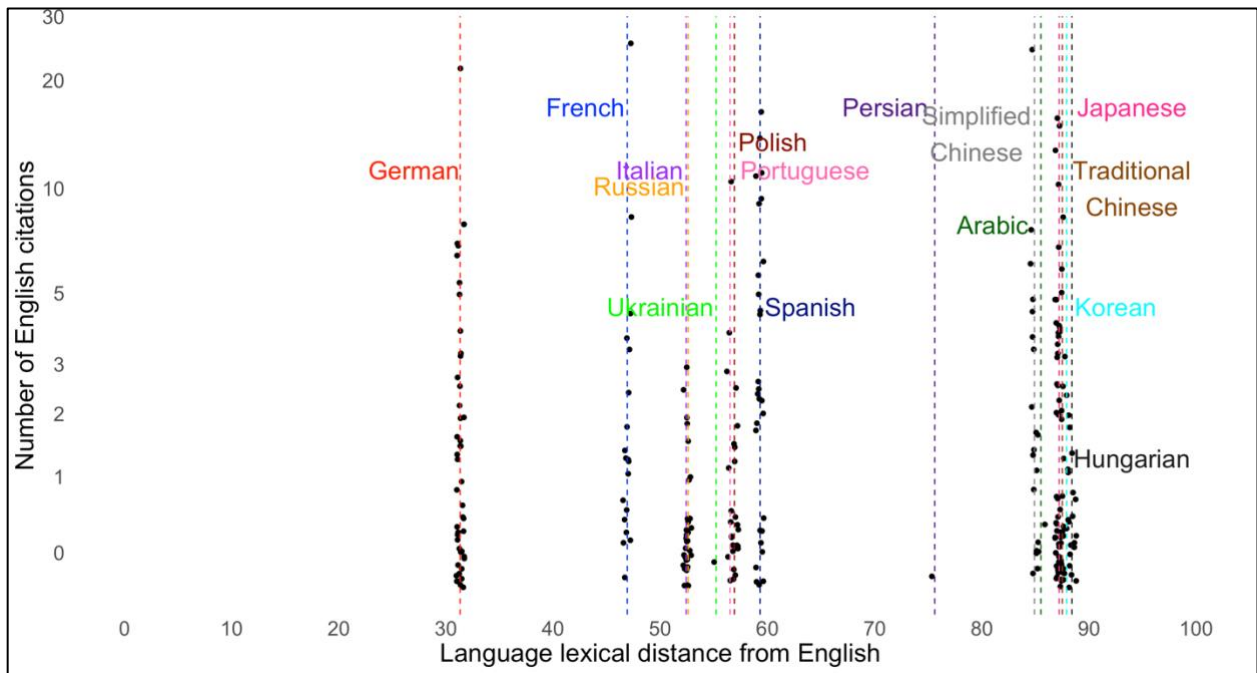
231
 232 *Figure 4: The proportion of total citations received by an article split into three groups: citations from*
 233 *the same language as the article (green bottom section), English (orange middle section), or another non-*
 234 *English language (purple top section). The number of citations received by articles in each language is*
 235 *displayed in the figure.*

236
 237 As hypothesised, non-English-language articles that included an English-language abstract received a
 238 significantly higher number of English citations when controlling for other factors (Figure 5, Table S2).
 239 Contrary to our hypothesis, articles in languages that are more linguistically distant from English received
 240 a significantly higher number of English citations (Figure 6, Table S2). As expected, articles that were
 241 published in older years and had more citations from the same language also attracted a higher number of
 242 English citations (Figure 5, Table S2).



243

244 *Figure 5: Relationship between the number of same-language citations and the number of English*
 245 *language citations received by non-English language articles with (blue, n=140) and without (orange,*
 246 *n=79) an English-language abstract. The regression lines are based on the fitted negative binomial*
 247 *generalised linear model (Table S2) with 95% confidence intervals shown as shaded areas. Jitter is used*
 248 *to show all data points. The x and y-axis have been log10-transformed.*



249

250 *Figure 6: Relationship between the linguistic distance from English of the language of a non-English*
251 *language article and the number of English language citations received by the article. Jitter has been*
252 *used to show all points. The y-axis has been log10 transformed.*

253 Our analysis showed that 91% of citations for all articles in the English-language database were from
254 English-language articles (Supplementary Figure 1). Out of the non-English-language citations, the
255 highest number of citations was from Spanish, followed by German and Portuguese, though these
256 languages only accounted for small percentages (1.73%, 0.66% and 0.65% respectively) due to the
257 overwhelming dominance of English citations. 24.86% (n=43) of articles only contained English
258 language citations. Only 10 English-language articles in our sample had an abstract that was translated
259 into another language. Abstracts were found to have been translated into only Spanish (n=8) or French
260 (n=2).

DISCUSSION

262 Our study found that non-English-language literature received significantly fewer citations than English-
263 language literature, and specifically, fewer citations from English language articles. Our analysis also
264 revealed that the total number of citations is consistently higher than the number of English citations in all
265 non-English languages, meaning that citations to non-English-language articles are primarily from the same
266 language. This suggests that the limited number of citations from English-language articles must be at least
267 partly due to the effects of language barriers, wherein these articles are overlooked or inaccessible due to
268 their language (Amano, González-Varo and Sutherland, 2016; Hannah *et al.*, 2024).

269 There were several isolated languages for which English-language citations were notably rare, including
270 Hungarian, Polish, Korean and Russian (Figure 3). This suggests that scientific evidence being produced
271 in those languages may not reach a broader audience, such as researchers, policymakers, and conservation
272 practitioners in different regions, despite the relevance or importance of the science. Russian, for example,
273 was the most isolated study in our database, with an average of 94.8% of citations being in the same
274 language. Russia is known to have high scientific output (Mokhnacheva and Tsvetkova, 2019), however
275 this information is rarely used internationally. Russian-language articles may also be particularly important
276 in conservation due to the country's vast and unique landmass, which is home to a number of rare endemic
277 species as well as migratory species (Kirpotin *et al.*, 2021). These articles may provide essential insights
278 into these species and ecosystems, contributing to both conservation efforts and the global understanding.
279 However, due to the isolation of the Russian-language articles, much of this information remains
280 underutilised by the international community. Although the database of non-English-language articles used
281 in this study covers the top 16 non-English languages in terms of scientific publications (Amano *et al.*
282 2016), we can't dismiss the possibility that there are other languages in which important evidence for
283 conservation is published yet rarely used internationally.

284 Having an English-language abstract was positively associated with the number of English citations in non-
285 English-language articles (Figure 5, Table S2). Although there may be other confounding factors (e.g., non-
286 English-language articles indexed on a well-known literature search system may be more likely to have
287 English-language abstracts), this suggests that providing an English-language abstract in a non-English-
288 language article can increase its international visibility, potentially increasing its impact. Importantly, our
289 model found that non-English-language articles with a more robust study design or those assessing species
290 of greater conservation concern did not necessarily receive more English citations. This may indicate that
291 scientific rigour and global importance are not necessarily the key elements in gaining article attention, and
292 instead language-related visibility and accessibility are crucial. Many of the non-English language articles
293 assessed in this study adopt robust study designs to test the effectiveness of conservation actions for
294 threatened species (Amano, *et al.*, 2021), some of which may not have been fully utilised in conservation
295 simply due to language barriers. For example, the study by Shizhou, Shengqiao, & Wu (2013), a randomised
296 control trial investigating the critically endangered South China Tiger, which has only received 3 citations.

297 Contrary to our hypothesis, the number of English citations was higher in articles written in languages that
298 are more linguistically distant from English. This may indicate that languages that are further from English,
299 such as Japanese, simplified Chinese, and traditional Chinese, may have greater recognition by both
300 international and domestic communities as an important source of evidence for informing conservation
301 science. Japanese has the largest number of papers in our database (60), sourced from 12 different journals.
302 These journals and papers seem to be recognised as an important source of evidence both domestically and
303 internationally.

304 Sharing scientific information across languages is key to gaining a comprehensive understanding of
305 conservation challenges and performing conservation actions based on relevant and robust evidence.
306 Incorporating greater diversity in the language of sources can reduce bias (Konno et al 2020) and offer
307 unique perspectives and regional/local knowledge (Amano, *et al.*, 2021). For example, regions with rich
308 biodiversity but limited resources for research are often underrepresented in conservation science, leading
309 to an incomplete understanding of ecosystems, hindering effective conservation strategies (Amano,
310 Lamming and Sutherland, 2016; Wilson *et al.*, 2016). Language gaps further compound the issue, as
311 English is not widely spoken in many of the regions with rich biodiversity, and research published in
312 languages other than English there often struggles to reach a global audience (Di Bitetti and Ferreras, 2017).
313 Similarly, information needs to flow between different non-English languages to avoid wasted resources
314 and incomplete understandings (Buxton *et al.*, 2020). If cross-language citations are rare, the research
315 produced within a language may lack these alternative viewpoints, risking the formation of echo-chambers.
316 While sometimes research may only apply to a small area or locally relevant topic, reliance on same-
317 language citations can limit the global impact and interrupt the exchange of knowledge.

318 Our results suggest that providing English-language abstracts of non-English-language articles may
319 increase the visibility and use of the articles. However, simply recommending that authors publishing in
320 non-English languages include English-language abstracts may further burden those whose first language
321 is not English, as these authors already face significant time and resource costs (Amano *et al.*, 2023). A
322 potential solution could be the implementation of machine translation technologies. While the quality of
323 machine translation including artificial intelligence is still not perfect and varies between languages
324 (Esperança-Rodier and Frankowski, 2021; Mohamed *et al.*, 2024; Moneus and Sahari, 2024), publishers,
325 journals, and literature search systems should start considering its implementation on their platforms to
326 multilingualise scientific publications. These measures are especially important when it comes to the more
327 isolated languages, such as Russian, Korean, Polish and Hungarian, where there are a limited number of
328 English citations.

329 Conservation science, being a discipline with global application, benefits from a diverse range of
330 perspectives, methodologies, and findings. While it can be difficult to assess information in multiple
331 languages, research teams should endeavour to proactively search and include evidence that is available
332 only in non-English languages to ensure that all relevant evidence is considered. Ultimately, the integration
333 of multilingual information into conservation science can benefit both the scientific community and the
334 natural world that we seek to conserve.

335 Funding and Data Availability

336 This work is supported by the Australian Research Council Future Fellowship FT180100354 and
337 The University of Queensland Research Training Program Scholarship.

338

339 The data used in the analysis is provided as Supplementary Data S1. All codes used in the
340 analysis are available at <https://github.com/KHannah12/MultilingualCitations/>.

341

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