1	Biodiversity research requires more rotors and wheels on and above
2	ground, as well as below water
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14 Abstract

15 Human activities have caused rapid decline in biodiversity, with accelerating species extinction. 16 Simultaneously, recent advancements in artificial intelligence and autonomous systems offer 17 transformative potential for biodiversity research. Unmanned vehicles-such as drones, 18 ground robots, and underwater robots-equipped with high-resolution sensors enhance our 19 ability to monitor ecosystems with unprecedented efficiency and scale. Here, we review studies 20 published in Web of Science (1930–2023) using unmanned vehicles for ecological monitoring 21 and explore how it could be done more broadly to further biodiversity research. Drones are 22 most commonly used for vegetation mapping, species monitoring, and habitat assessment in 23 terrestrial ecosystems; ground and underwater robots focus on aquatic environments, 24 supporting benthic surveys, water quality monitoring, and sample collection. Still, we identify 25 key gaps: this growing body of research predominantly addresses plants (46%) and animals 26 (44%), with minimal focus on microbes (10%). Additionally, key biodiversity hotspots—such 27 as South Africa, Central America, and South America-are underrepresented. Our findings 28 emphasise the need for expanded taxonomic and biogeographic efforts to maximise the impact 29 of these technologies. We argue that, by incorporating innovative combination of unmanned 30 vehicles, payloads, AI and in novel application scenarios, researchers could achieve cost-31 effective, accurate, and multi-scale ecological monitoring. Strengthening collaborations 32 between ecologists and roboticists will advance biodiversity conservation and address pressing 33 knowledge gaps in the Anthropocene.

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Keywords: autonomous systems, biodiversity, conservation, drones, robots, ecological
 monitoring.

37 Main

The Anthropocene, a geological era characterised by the profound environmental impacts of 38 39 humans, poses key challenges for biodiversity. The extent of our footprint in this new era is 40 already staggering: in 2020, the global mass of human-made materials exceeded the mass of 41 all living organisms on Earth¹. Indeed, human infrastructure has encroached upon at least 80% of the 15,150 terrestrial key biodiversity areas². These and other human activities have 42 43 accelerated species loss, driving modern human-induced extinction rates to 100-fold above the background rates for mammals³ and 80-fold for birds⁴. Despite this alarming reality, ~80% of 44 45 living species remain unknown to science, and their extinction rate is estimated to be higher than that of already known species⁵. The scale of this human footprint and global change⁶ 46 47 demands urgent, cost-effective biodiversity monitoring solutions, as species may have gone 48 extinct before we even know of their existence⁷.

Against global change^{1,8,9} and biodiversity loss^{3,6}, significant technological 49 advancements have emerged in computer science¹⁰ and autonomous navigation¹¹ in the past 50 51 decades, which offer unique opportunities for biodiversity research. For instance, progress in deep learning has revolutionised ecology in species identification, animal behaviour, and 52 biodiversity estimation¹². Concurrently, advancements in autonomous navigation systems^{13,14}, 53 sensors^{15,16}, and intelligent robotics¹⁷ have facilitated the use of unmanned aerial²¹, ground, 54 55 and underwater vehicles²¹ in biodiversity monitoring and ecological conservation. These 56 technologies are greatly expanding the spatial range accessible to ecologists cost-effectively, 57 and significantly enhancing our ability to monitor diverse ecosystems now that we need it the 58 most.

59

<Fig. 1>

60 Given these unprecedented challenges and opportunities, ecologists are impelled to 61 examine how these technological advancements can be used to monitor, understand, and 62 protect ecosystems more effectively. Here, we review the current application of unmanned 63 vehicles in ecological monitoring, and highlight how it could be done more broadly to further 64 biodiversity research. Specifically, we: 1) systematically review the application of unmanned 65 vehicles in biodiversity studies; 2) identify gaps for biodiversity study for future research; and 66 3) point out potential future efforts in bridging these gaps. To address both goals, we conduct 67 a literature review of publications from 1930 to 2023 in Web of Science, and identify 769 68 papers using unmanned aircraft systems (i.e., drones) and 386 papers employing unmanned 69 ground/underwater vehicles in biodiversity studies (details of the search in Appendix S1). 70 Country, ecosystem, taxonomy, spatial scale (*i.e.*, subdiscipline of ecology) of the applications were automatically extracted from each abstract via scraping algorithms in R (Appendix S2), 71 72 which performed at a high precision (78-92% accuracy; Appendix S1: Table S1). From the 73 total of 1,155 papers, 20% (232 papers) were randomly selected for a full-text review to extract 74 the remotely operated platform, payload, and application scenarios, which we used to assess 75 their broader applicability in biodiversity research.

76 Current applications of drones and robots in biodiversity studies

77 Timeline and ecosystem biases in drone and robotic applications

The first applications of drones in biodiversity research took place two decades later than that of ground and aquatic robots (e.g., Remotely Operated Vehicles-ROV²⁵, drifters²⁶). However, the application of drones in biodiversity research has surged exponentially since the 2010s (Fig. 1c). This increase is driven by more affordable commercial drone models equipped with advanced sensor systems, user-friendly operation methods, and highly efficient data collection capabilities. Indeed, the release timeline of some of the groundbreaking built-in sensors and functions in DJI drone models (a primary maker, with 80% of the market worldwide²⁷) took 85 place right before and during the rapid increase in their usage in ecology. Importantly, said 86 sensors range from \$100s (e.g., RGB cameras) to ~\$10,000s (e.g., multispectral, LiDAR; 87 https://www.dronenerds.com/collections/cameras-sensors?page=1&count=24), depending on 88 sensor type and resolution. In comparison, ground/underwater robots remain more specialised, 89 often less commercially available to the ecological community, and are priced much higher. 90 For instance, due to the outdoor nature of ecological monitoring deployments, these platforms 91 may be expensive to design and implement. In particular, marine applications require specialised waterproofing¹¹⁸, etc. (Fig. 1b). 92

93 Nevertheless, drones and robots have found multiple 'ecological niches' due to their diverse applications and versatility across ecosystems. Drone applications span terrestrial and 94 95 marine environments, but to date their usage has been biased towards terrestrial ecosystems 96 (20% since the 2020s; Fig. 1c). This terrestrial bias in drone applications is likely due to the 97 availability of advanced sensors like LiDAR and hyperspectral cameras as well as structure-98 from-motion (SfM) technology. These sensors facilitate monitoring of vegetation structure and plant physiology in structurally complex ecosystems, like forests or savannas^{28,29}. There is less 99 application of ground robots than underwater robots in biodiversity studies (Fig. 2c), which 100 101 serve specialised roles in monitoring benthic communities, marine fauna, and physical 102 conditions (Appendix S2: Table S1).

103 Typical sensors and their functions

In our review, optical sensors make up to 94% of drone payloads. These optical sensors include RGB cameras (54%), multispectral (18%), hyperspectral (6%), LiDAR (8%), and thermal/near-infrared camera (8%) (Fig. 2c). RGB cameras are typically used to monitor land cover and habitat quality³⁰⁻³³, detect environmental hazards (*e.g.*, fire, green tide)^{34,35}, conduct post-disaster assessments³⁶⁻³⁸, and track populations of megafauna, and birds³⁹⁻⁴² (Appendix S3: Table S1). In aquatic systems, the usage of drones includes applications such as monitoring

water quality⁴³ and macroalga⁴⁴, surveying benthic communities in shallow waters⁴⁵, and 110 tracking the behaviour of marine megafauna, like whales^{46,47} (Box 1). Advanced sensors in 111 112 drones, including multispectral and hyperspectral cameras, enable researchers to detect subtle spectral differences, which have facilitated applications such as species classification and 113 mapping⁴⁸⁻⁵¹, estimation of plant biomass⁵²⁻⁵⁴ and monitoring of physiological traits⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷, as 114 well as monitoring of water and soil quality⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰. Thermal infrared sensors are applied in 115 population surveys^{40,61-63} and behaviour monitoring⁶⁴ of large animals, as well as in mapping 116 temperature distributions across landscapes⁶⁵⁻⁶⁷. LiDAR-equipped drones are particularly 117 valuable for applications such as canopy structure analysis⁶⁸⁻⁷⁰, habitat classification⁴⁷, carbon 118 119 stock estimation, disturbance detection, and recovery monitoring. Additionally, RGB sensors, 120 combined with SfM algorithms, can generate 3D models of objects, offering a cost-effective 121 alternative to LiDAR to estimate changes in biomass and structural attributes and, when repeated through time, ecosystem-level changes⁷⁰⁻⁷². 122

123

<**Box 1**>

124 Compared with drones, ground/underwater robots have lower diversity in optical sensor types, but a higher diversity in non-optical sensor types. Indeed, in our review, optical sensors 125 only make up to 57% of payloads of ground/underwater robots, while these were found in 94% 126 of drones. Physical and chemical sensors make up to 18% of the payloads of robots while only 127 128 1% for drones. Similarly, robots carry devices to sample, collect, or release materials in 17% 129 of studies, but drones in 3% (Fig. 2, Appendix 2: Table S1). Ground/underwater robots typically rely on RGB sensors (which make up to 96% of all optical sensors) for video 130 documentation of benthic community composition^{73,74}, habitat surveys^{75,76}, and behaviour 131 monitoring of marine species^{77,78}. Other optical sensors used by ground and underwater robots 132 like hyperspectral, near-infrared, and thermal infrared cameras are occasionally (4% of all 133 optical sensors) used in monitoring ship wreck⁷⁹, air temperature, relative humidity, and leaf 134

wetness⁸⁰. Physical and chemical sensors monitor variables such as dissolved oxygen, salinity,
temperature, chlorophyll-a, and pressure^{81,82}. Specialised samplers also enable these robots to
collect specimens and samples from aquatic environments, such as sediments⁸³, eDNA⁸⁴, or
vent fluids⁸⁵. Furthermore, autonomous gliders and drifters equipped with diverse sensors
contribute to monitoring ocean currents, biogeochemical parameters, and other physical
oceanographic variables^{86,87}.

141

<Fig. 2>

142

143 Applications beyond just monitoring biodiversity

Drones and robots are being used in increasingly innovative ways to support biodiversity 144 145 management and conservation. In addition to carrying optical, physical, and chemical sensors, 146 these technologies are now actively sampling gases, liquids, and sediments from the environment^{88,89} and releasing biotic and abiotic materials to aid conservation efforts⁹⁰. For 147 148 example, recently, drones have been deployed to release insects in Pennsylvania (USA) as biological control agents to combat invasive plants⁹⁰. Furthermore, new developments in 149 bioinspired robots allow direct interaction with ecosystems⁹¹, as in biorobots used in cognitive 150 ecology to study species responses⁹². This new generation of robots can pave the way for 151 152 conservation applications by actively interacting or interfering with wildlife to alleviate 153 human-wildlife conflicts. Examples include bio-inspired robots to deter wild animals from 154 artificial constructions, e.g. birds from airports 93 .

155

156 Knowledge gaps

Based on our review of the literature, we identify data gaps in the application of drones and
robots in biodiversity studies along four main dimensions: (1) geographic distribution, (2)
taxonomic coverage, (3) spatial scale, and (4) targeted biome.

Drones have been predominantly used in China (31% as per our review), North 160 161 America (17%), and Australia (6%). Robots follow a similar pattern, though their applications 162 are more frequent in the United States (Fig. 3 a, b) than China. It is worth noting that this geographic distribution does not align with the location of global biodiversity hotspots (Fig. 163 164 3c) nor with regions most at risk under climate change (Fig. 3d). Specifically, tropical regions 165 like Central and Latin America, Africa, and Southeast Asia, which contain a high concentration of biodiversity hotspots⁹⁴ and are highly vulnerable to climate change impacts⁸, have to date 166 167 experienced limited use of drones and robots for biodiversity monitoring, sampling, and 168 conservation. Notably, our review found no applications of these technologies in biodiversity 169 hotspots across parts of Latin America and Africa such as Mesoamerica (Guatemala, Honduras, 170 Nicaragua), West Africa (Benin, Togo, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Guinea) and the 171 Horn of Africa (Ethiopia, Somalia) (Fig. 3). The geographic mismatch between drone and robot 172 deployment and regions needing urgent biodiversity monitoring underscores the need for 173 greater automation efforts in these biodiverse yet highly endangered regions of the world.

174

<Fig. 3>

175 Most studies using drones and robots monitor plants and animals but neglect microbes. 176 Indeed, 90% of studies in our review using drones and robots target plants or animals (particularly macrovertebrates, Appendix S2: Table S1), while studies targeting bacteria and 177 protists represent only 4.7% and 3.4% of our review, respectively (Fig. 4a). This taxonomic 178 179 bias likely reflects the long-standing tendency in biodiversity studies to focus on larger 180 organisms in accessible regions, often overlooking the diversity and ecological functions of microbes²⁴. Drones and robots equipped with novel sensors like fluorescence imaging 181 cameras⁸⁰ or samplers hold the promise to balance such a bias by detecting and monitoring 182 183 microbial diversity in previously unreachable habitats. Examples of relevant studies, though few, can be found in Antarctica, glaciers, deserts, and even at deep sea (see limited studies in
these extreme ecosystems in Appendix S2: Table S1).

186

<**Fig. 4**>

187 For application of drones and robots in plants and animals specifically, drones and 188 robots showed great capability in bridging multiple spatial scales in various ecosystems. 189 Drones are primarily used in plant studies at the population to landscape scale in terrestrial and 190 coastal ecosystems. At the same time, robots have become more specialised in animal studies 191 at the behavioural to community scale in marine ecosystems (Fig. 4b). As noted by E. O. Wilson²⁴, biodiversity research is often polarised towards molecular studies of a few model 192 193 species or broad ecosystem-level investigations. The flexibility of drones and robots in 194 collecting data at multiple scales holds great potential to bridge the spatial-scale gap between 195 the broad-scale data collected by satellite and more localised, point-based studies^{95,96}.

196 Nevertheless, unique niche of advanced optical sensors and ground robots are awaiting 197 to be applied in studying plant physiology and exploring challenging terrains respectively. 198 Application of drones in plants revealed despite advanced optical sensors, e.g. multispectral 199 and hyperspectral sensors, making plant physiology monitoring feasible (Box 1), physiological 200 studies of plants using them remain limited (Fig. 4b). Comparatively, drones used in animal 201 studies span various ecosystems and biological levels of organisation/scales, except for coral 202 reefs (Fig. 4b), where animals remain below the water surface and thus out of drones' detection range (but see Bennett et al⁹⁷). In contrast, robots are more commonly used in marine 203 204 ecosystems, largely because most are underwater robots, other than ground robots (Fig. 2). 205 While drones offer valuable data taken above the tree canopy, ground robots hold key 206 advantages such as easier environment-proofing (e.g., waterproofing), longer battery 207 endurance, higher payload capacity, and enhanced obstacle avoidance capabilities⁹⁸. These 208 advantages contribute to the unique niche of ground robots in studying ground flora/fauna in 209 remote and challenging terrains—such as dense forests⁹⁹, deserts⁸⁰, rocky topography¹⁰⁰ etc.,
210 though relevant application is still limited (Appendix S3: Table S1).

211

212 Pathways towards bridging current data gaps in biodiversity monitoring

213 The geographic mismatch between drone and robot applications with biodiversity hotspots and 214 regions most vulnerable to climate change (Fig. 3), especially in tropical regions, highlights 215 the need for targeted research funding and technical training. Cross-country collaborations 216 between technologically advanced nations and those with high biodiversity could help bridge 217 this gap. Such meaningful collaboration could replace helicopter science and be stimulated by better involvement of local scientists in grants, publications, and student mentoring¹⁰¹. We urge 218 219 tech-oriented research in developing countries to be prioritised by research funding 220 programmes on biodiversity conservation, such as the Critical Ecosystem Partnership Fund 221 (CEPF), Darwin Initiative, Global Biodiversity Framework Fund (GBFF), or JRS Biodiversity Foundation. 222

223 The size bias of organisms could be reduced by expanding the capabilities of drones 224 and robots beyond monitoring platforms to include innovative sampling tools like samplers, 225 grabbers, and diggers (Fig. 2). These additions would enable sampling of smaller organisms across a wide range of environments from desserts⁸⁰ to deep sea⁸⁵, thus promoting greater 226 227 exploration of microbial and smaller organism biodiversity. Currently, many commercial 228 drones and robots are oriented toward monitoring (Fig. 2). However, ecologists and engineers 229 could benefit from collaborating in the design and incorporation of specialised functions, e.g. deploying loggers¹⁰² or tracking individuals¹⁰³, that could greatly benefit biodiversity studies. 230 231 Potential technology transfer of biosignature detection from space mission¹ might boost such 232 collaboration in the most extreme environments on earth, e.g. volcanos, Antarctica etc.

233 Physiological studies of plants and animals using drones and robots make up to a small 234 portion (3%) of the current research (Fig. 5). Such bias away from physiological studies may 235 be alleviated by wider application of advanced optical sensors, such as multi/hyperspectral 236 sensors. Currently, there are limited application of hyperspectral sensors in physiological 237 studies due to several factors: (1) the restricted civilian adoption of these sensors has impeded 238 their miniaturisation and cost reduction, preventing them from achieving the widespread use 239 in ecological research that RGB cameras have attained (Fig. 1); (2) their lower stability and 240 precision in material detection compared to contact-based methods, such as physical and 241 chemical analyses (Fig. 2); and (3) insufficient exploration of the potential and feasibility of 242 multispectral and hyperspectral sensors in physiological studies. However, with the availability 243 of lightweight hyperspectral sensors that are compatible with commercial platforms like the DJI M600⁵⁷ and Aerialtronics Altura AT8¹⁰⁴, we expect more physiological studies to benefit 244 245 from these cost-effective approaches.

246 Overcoming technical and cost barriers is essential to facilitate the widespread 247 adoption of ground robots. Though drones have been widely applied in terrestrial ecosystems with complex vertical structures, such as forests, drones may struggle to capture data from 248 249 beneath the canopy or within dense vegetation. Terrestrial robots could complement aerial 250 monitoring by gathering ground-level data, enabling a multi-layered approach to biodiversity 251 monitoring. However, challenges with navigation, stability on rugged terrain (but see 252 quadruped robots), and the high cost of terrestrial robots which are custom-designed to mitigate these issues but only at tiny production scales¹¹⁹ will continue to limit their widespread use in 253 254 these ecosystems. The successful popularization of drones, driven by advancements in 255 technical solutions and cost reductions, offers valuable lessons for the commercialization of 256 ground robots.

258 The coalition of drones and robots for effective ecological monitoring

Environmental and ecological processes occur across multiple spatial and temporal scales^{105,106}. 259 260 Understanding these cross-scale interactions remains a key challenge for effective biodiversity research^{106,107}. Drones and robots (Fig. 1b), combined with satellite and aerial remote sensing 261 262 as well as traditional monitoring methods like ground-based surveys (Fig. 1a), offer invaluable, 263 cross-validated, and complementary data across a wide range of spatial resolutions, from 264 kilometers to millimeters. This capability facilitates a deeper understanding of how processes 265 at one scale relate to those at another, contributing to a comprehensive, multi-scale perspective on ecosystem dynamics. Successful cross scale studies have been implemented in 266 hydrodynamic monitoring^{96,108} and vegetation mapping^{95,109}. 267

268 Beyond their role as remote sensing platforms, drones and robots hold promise in 269 conservation work. Similar to their use in agriculture for applying chemicals and planting seeds^{110,111}, drones and robots could also release environmental sensors into remote and hard-270 to-access regions for automatic ecological monitoring¹¹², or collect biotic or abiotic samples⁸⁵. 271 272 Of significant promise in the future are biorobots (Fig. 1b) as a conservation tool for exploration, data collection, intervention, and maintenance tasks¹¹³. For example, once 273 bioethical issues are appropriately addressed¹¹⁴, biorobots could be programmed to engage 274 directly with organisms to influence their behaviour. Such interference of population behaviour 275 276 can aid the decision-making of wild populations for conservation purposes, thus avoiding the 277 hazards from artificial structures, e.g. dams or airports¹¹³. Expanding the use of drones and 278 robots in such applications could significantly broaden their utility beyond traditional monitoring. 279

Finally, integrating AI technologies directly into drones and robots could enhance their adaptability and efficiency. Current AI focuses on post-processing tasks like species classification, but embedding AI onboard drones and robots could enable real-time navigation, 283 exploration, and target tracking, improving data collection and task efficiency. For example, some drones equipped with on-board processing capabilities are already capable of using 284 computer vision methods to recognise and detect forest fire¹¹⁵ based on the still images or the 285 286 video input from the drone cameras. When integrating sensor-based target detection with autonomous navigation control, drones/robots are capable of dynamically identifying and 287 288 tracking the targets. Successful applications include boundary detection of hazardous aerial plumes in real time¹¹⁶ and deepwater animal tracking¹¹⁷. By integrating robust robotic 289 290 platforms with cutting-edge payloads, AI, and autonomous navigation, these technologies have 291 the potential to extend human capabilities, enabling unprecedented exploration and monitoring 292 in otherwise inaccessible regions. Realising this potential requires a solid collaborative alliance 293 among ecologists, biologists, conservationists, roboticists, and computer scientists to develop 294 purpose-built robotic systems that address the challenges of biodiversity conservation, safeguarding Earth's biological heritage amid the uncertainties of global change. 295

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652 Box 1. Drones and robots offer a wide range of applications in biodiversity monitoring. 653 Some application areas include: habitat structure analysis, species classification, biomass 654 estimation (RGB, LiDAR), plant physiological and water quality monitoring (multi- and 655 hyperspectral), water physical/chemical monitoring (physical/chemical sensor), and organism 656 sampling (sampler/releaser). Word clouds were created by manually extracting application 657 scenarios from 209 randomly selected publications from a total of 1,154 publications examined in our review. Word size represents usage frequency in these publications (source 658 659 data: Appendix S2: Table S1). Word colour has no further meaning than to distinguish 660 adjacent words.

661



663 Figure captions

664 Figure 1. Drones and robots are revolutionising traditional ecological monitoring methods. (a) Traditional ecological monitoring methods. From left to right: quadrat survey of grassland 665 666 biodiversity at Wytham Woods, UK (photo credit: Erola Fenollosa); field survey of understory invasive reed at Black Water Refuge, MD, USA (photo credit: Man Qi); Body mass of 667 668 pinnipeds weighed by hand using anaesthetic and a sling; benthic survey by divers (data source: 669 https://www.benthicecology.org/prospective-students). (b) Novel ecological monitoring 670 methods based on drones and robots. Front left to right: grassland biodiversity monitoring with 671 a autonomous navigated robots; invasive reed detection (red) under forest canopy (green) by 672 airborne LiDAR; body size measurement of pinniped from point cloud of drone images; 673 automatic classification of benthic species from video/image taken by underwater robots.(c) 674 Timeline of application and development of key innovations in drones and ground/underwater 675 robots across different ecosystems suggest a fast uptake of payloads on drones contributing to 676 increasing popularity of drones across various ecosystems. The stacked area chart shows the 677 number of publications applying drones and ground/underwater robots in different ecosystems 678 over time. Dots and vertical dashed line represent the timeline when built-in groundbreaking 679 functionalities became available in commercial drones from DJI, a leading manufacturer of drones that holds 80% of the global market share²⁷. Below is a list of DJI drones with the year 680 681 they were released with built-in functionality: DJI Phantom 1 (2013) GPS, DJI Phantom 2 682 Vision (2013) Real time live-view, DJI Zenmuse XT (2015) Thermal, DJI P4 (2019) 683 Multispectral, DJI Zenmuse L1 (2020)-LiDAR. Shrub Grassland 684 Shrubland/Grassland/Savanna/Woodlands.

685

Figure 2. The payloads utilised on different robotic platforms across various ecosystemsindicate that optical remote sensing is popular for drones, while robots are more specialised in

sampling and environmental physical/chemical monitoring. Results are based on a 20%
random sample of the total of 1,154 examined publications where drones and robots were
explicitly used to monitor biodiversity (See Appendix S3). ROVs - Remotely Operated
Vehicles, AOVs - Autonomous Underwater Vehicles.

692

693 Figure 3. Geographic mismatch between distribution of drone and robot applications and 694 biodiversity rich but vulnerable regions. Geographic distribution of case studies using (a) 695 drones and (b) robots in biodiversity research, showing a clear geographic mismatch with 696 respect to (c) biodiversity hotspots and (d) climate-vulnerable ecological areas. (c) Biodiversity 697 hotspots map made by Critical Ecosystem Partnership Fund ⁹⁴. The highlighted 36 biodiversity 698 hotspots comprise 2% of the land surface of the Earth, but together contain 50% of the world's 699 vascular plants and 42% of land vertebrates found nowhere else on Earth. The colours assigned 700 to the hotspots are only used to distinguish adjacent hotspots and have no further meaning. (d) 701 Climate-vulnerable ecological areas are indicated by the percentage of species in 100-km² 702 resolution grid cells exposed to temperature beyond the realised niche of each species by 2100 703 under RCP 8.58. Studies spanning multiple countries credit each nation involved. Marine 704 studies that are difficult to geolocate from abstracts are excluded, including 16 cases from the 705 Atlantic Ocean (4 from the north, 1 from the northeast, 1 from the south-central), 706 Mediterranean Sea (3 from the northwest), Pacific Ocean (2 from the north, 1 from the east), 707 Indian Ocean (1 from the southwest), North Sea (1 from central), and Philippine Sea (1 from 708 central).

709

Figure 4. Taxonomic bias of drone- and robot-based biodiversity studies towards plants and
animals at spatial scales, ranging from behaviour, population, to landscape level. (a)
Proportion of examined 1,154 publications using drones and robots to study species from

- 713 different taxonomic kingdoms, with plants and animals representing the majority. (b)
- 714 Percentage of the 1,154 drone and robot applications in plant and animal studies, categorised
- 715 by scale and ecosystem type.





Figure 2



Figure 3



Figure 4

